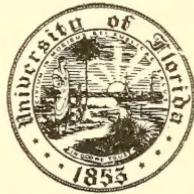


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ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

2

A HANDBOOK OF PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH

BY

E. KRUISINGA

PART II

ENGLISH ACCIDENCE AND SYNTAX

2

FIFTH EDITION

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NOTE TO THE FIFTH EDITION. — In this volume the chapter on *Conjunctions* has been re-written and enlarged. The other chapters have been considerably altered, especially that on *Nouns*. The sections on *Adjectives and Adverbs* have been transferred from the third volume.

K.

CONTENTS

The Parts of Speech

2

	Page
Nouns	3—112
The Inflection of Nouns and Pronouns	3— 17
The suffix in a sibilant as a plural and as a genitive suffix. Compounds. Word-Groups.	
Plural and Genitive distinguished: Tradition- al Plurals in a Sibilant. Isolated Forms. Compounds. Word-Groups. Plurals in Formal English. Foreign Words.	
The Plural of Nouns	18— 36
Nouns in a sibilant with one form only.	
Unchanged Plurals.	
Classification of Nouns. Plural of Class- Nouns. Of Collective Nouns. Of Abstract and Material Nouns. Of Proper Names.	
Numeratives. Use. Number.	
The Genitive of Nouns and Pronouns	36— 79
Form. Genitive of Pronouns.	
Use: Pre-Genitive. Independent Genitive.	
Post-Genitive. Absolute Genitive of Nouns.	
Absolute Possessive.	
The Genitive of Names of Animals.	
The Classifying Genitive.	
The Genitive of Nouns of Measure.	
The Genitive as the Subject of an Ing.	
Character of the Genitive.	
Attributive Genitive and Prepositional Adjunct.	
Post-Genitive and Prepositional Adjunct.	

	Page
The Noun Stem.	79—96
Use of the Noun Stem.	
The Noun Stem and the Inflected Noun:	
Noun Stem and Plural. Noun Stem and	
Genitive.	
The Gender of Nouns.	96—112
Animate and Inanimate Nouns. Nouns	
denoting Persons. Nouns denoting Animals.	
Nouns denoting Plants. Names of Artificial	
Objects. Other Nouns.	
Adjectives and Adverbs.	113—125
Distinction of Adjectives and Adverbs in	
English.	
Adjectives. Relation of Adjectives and	
their leading Noun. Attributive and Pre-	
dicative Use.	
Adverbs. Classification. Use. Predicative	
Adverbs.	
Pronouns.	126—378
Definition of Pronouns. Classification.	
Simple Personal Pronouns	130—160
Forms. Nominative and Oblique. Both	
nominative and oblique with <i>as, but, except,</i>	
<i>than</i> . The Genitive of the personal pro-	
nouns.	
Reflexive Use of the Genitive and the	
Oblique. Meaning of the Personal Pronouns:	
First Person. Second Person. Third Person:	
Deictic Uses: anticipatory; indefinite; equi-	
valent to the pronoun of the second person;	
formal <i>it</i> . Anaphoric Use. Strong-stressed	
Uses.	
Compound Personal Pronouns . . .	160—169
Forms. Used as the predicate of a nominal	
sentence. Of a verbal sentence. Emphatic	
and unemphatic. In reciprocal adjuncts. Em-	
phasizing a subject-pronoun and a noun.	
Compound pronouns as subjects.	

	Page
Simple and Compound Pronouns Compared.	
Interrogative-Relative Pronouns	169—197
<i>Who</i> : interrogative; independent relative; anaphoric relative.	
<i>What</i> : interrogative; independent relative.	
<i>Which</i> : interrogative; independent relative; anaphoric relative.	
<i>Who, what, and which</i> Compared.	
Interrogative-Relative Adverbs.	
Compound Interrogative-Relative Pronouns	197—202
The pronouns in <i>-ever</i> . Compound interrogative-relative Adverbs.	
Character of the Compounds in <i>-ever</i> .	
Demonstrative Pronouns.	202—237
Forms. Deictic Use: local, and temporal; affective; determinative. Anaphoric Use.	
<i>This</i> and <i>that</i> Combined.	
Such.	
Demonstrative Adverbs. <i>Here, there, thus.</i>	
Use of <i>so</i> . Anaphoric <i>so</i> : Referring to a sentence; with vicarious <i>do</i> ; with <i>to be</i> . Verbs without a backward reference. <i>So</i> in Literary English.	
Demonstratives combined with <i>much</i> .	
Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns and Adverbs. <i>So, it, and that.</i>	
The Definite Article.	237—258
Forms. Use: demonstrative; defining; classifying.	
Adverbial <i>the</i> .	
The Definite Article and the Possessive Pronouns.	
Indefinite Pronouns	258—329
Character of the Indefinite Pronouns.	
All	260—264
Attributive. Independent. Adverbial.	

	Page
Any	265—267
Both	267—268
Certain	268—269
Each	269—270
Either, Neither.	270—273
Every	273—274
All, each, and every Compared	274—276
All, any, every Compared	276—277
No	277—283
One.	283—311
Attributive <i>one</i> . <i>One</i> denoting Persons; as a numerical Class-noun; as an Indefinite Personal Pronoun; as a Determinative Pro- noun. As a personal Class-noun.	
<i>Anaphoric one</i> as a Pronoun.	
<i>Anaphoric one</i> as a Prop-word: With an article and without. After adjectives. After converted nouns. After genitives. After pronouns (possessive, interrogative, relative, demonstrative, each, other) and numerals. After comparatives and superlatives.	
<i>One</i> not used.	
The Indefinite Article.	311—316
Forms. Use: Numerical; Classifying; In- dividualizing. The Two Chief Functions of the Indefinite Article. The Definite and the Indefinite Article Compared.	
Other	316—322
Meanings. Groups with <i>other</i> . Otherwise; else.	
Same	322—323
Several	323—324
Some	324—328
Meanings of some. <i>Some</i> and <i>Any</i> Com- pared.	
Sundry	328
Thing	329

	Page
Compound Indefinite Pronouns	330—343
Compounds in <i>-body</i> . Compounds in <i>-one</i> : numerical and personal. The two kinds compared.	
None.	
Compounds in <i>-thing</i> . Somewhat. Naught, nought. Compounds in <i>-how</i> , <i>-where</i> , <i>-way</i> .	
Nouns without Articles	343—378
Absence of the Definite Article	344—365
Absence of the demonstrative article; of the defining article; of the classifying article: class-nouns; collective nouns; names of meals, of places, of time, and of diseases; converted adjectives; vocatives; syntactic groups (adjective with proper name, noun with proper name); contrasts; traditional.	
Absence of the Indefinite Article	365—378
Before predicative nouns. With front- position of the predicative noun. In <i>of</i> - adjuncts to <i>dignity</i> , etc. In negative sen- tences.	
Plain Nouns and Nouns with the In- definite Article Compared.	
Prepositions	379—409
Character of prepositions. Prepositions and Adverbs. Prepositions and Conjunctions. Form of prepositions: simple and compound. Group-prepositions. Relations of preposi- tional groups to case-forms in other lan- guages. Meanings of Prepositions. Prepo- sitional form-words: <i>of</i> . <i>Of</i> with a clear meaning of its own. <i>Of</i> -adjuncts qualifying a preceding noun, in the function of a gen- itive. <i>Of</i> in intensifying adjuncts. <i>Of</i> - adjuncts to the following noun. With nouns of definite number. <i>Kind of</i> , <i>sort of</i> . <i>Of</i> - adjuncts to Superlatives. <i>Of</i> -adjuncts with repetition of the noun. <i>The ceremony of</i>	

	Page
<i>marriage</i> , etc. <i>Of</i> with geographical nouns. <i>A duck of a child</i> , etc. <i>Of</i> with Pronouns. All and whole. Nouns with <i>of</i> and nouns in apposition.	
To. For. By. On, with, without.	
Conjunctions	410—433
Definition of conjunctions. Conjunctions and Adverbs. Conjunctions and Prepositions. Degrees of Conjunctiveness of various classes of words. Subordinating and Coordinating. Form of Conjunctions: relation to nouns, verbs, adverbs.	
Uses of <i>that</i> ; <i>and</i> ; <i>as</i> ; <i>but</i> , <i>but that</i> , <i>but what</i> .	
Archaic and Literary English	434—475
Verbs	434—457
Forms.	
Uses of the archaic and literary Forms: Preterites. Forms in <i>-st</i> and <i>-th</i> . The Optative Stem. The Potential Stem. Time of the action in the Stem. Character of the literary uses of the stem. Auxiliaries: as Independent Verbs. <i>Do</i> in Sentences with <i>but</i> , and in traditional English. Absence of <i>do</i> in negative Sentences. <i>Shall</i> and <i>Should</i> in archaic English. <i>Shall</i> in rhe- torical English, and in subordinate Clauses.	
Nouns	457—464
Genitive: Attributive. Genitive with Ing. Predicative Genitive.	
Gender: Nouns denoting things and ideas as animate nouns. Mixture of animate and inanimate gender.	
Pronouns.	465—474
Personal Pronouns: <i>Thou</i> , etc. Independent <i>its</i> . Reflexive Simple Personal Pronouns. Strong-stressed Personal Pronouns: as	

CONTENTS

XIII

Page

determinative, and as individual pronouns.	
Compound Personal Pronouns.	
Relative Pronouns: Compounds in <i>-soever</i> .	
Compounds in <i>-so</i> .	
Demonstrative Pronouns: Yon and yonder.	
Indefinite Pronouns: Other.	
Pronominal Adverbs.	
Retrospect on Literary English. . .	474—475
SUMMARY	476—479

CORRIGENDA

Volume I.

- P. 22, l. 9 fr. bottom, change *first* into *first and third*.
P. 128, l. 4 " " forms into *form*.
P. 288, § 414 l. 1. For *an adverb clause* read *a clause*.

*The corrigenda of this volume will be found
in the third volume.*

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

2

NOUNS

THE INFLECTION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

751. A number of nouns and some pronouns (the interrogative-relative *who*, and the indefinite 'pronouns' *one* and *other*) can take an inflectional suffix that is identical in form with the sibilantic suffix of the verb: see 5. The functions of the suffix will be dealt with further on, but its fundamental uses must be mentioned here, because form and function are inextricably intermingled. It is used:

- (1) to denote the plural number, independently of the function of the word in the sentence: *the plural*.
- (2) to denote the function of the word in the sentence, independently of number: *the genitive*¹).

A few examples of the inflected form will suffice, both in simple nouns (*a*), and simple pronouns (*b*), and in compounds (*c*).

a. [bʊks, bʊksɪz; vɪlɪdʒ, vɪlɪdʒɪz; dʒɔːdʒ, dʒɔːdʒɪz; hu, huz; houp, houps; kæt, kæts] *box, boxes; village, villages; George, George's; who, whose; hope, hopes; cat, cats or cat's (as in a cat's tail).*

b. awfully good ones; to do one's best.

c. [blæk'bəd, blæk'bədz] *blackbird, blackbirds or black-*

¹) The current spelling distinguishes the two functions by using an apostrophe for the genitive-function: plural *days*, genitive *day's*. There is even a third spelling: *days'*; this is based on a theory that English has a genitive plural like Latin and other languages. We shall see further on that English not only has no such form, but that it would even be contrary to the structure of living English.

bird's; handfuls; dining-rooms; forget-me-nots; go-betweens; lock-outs; anybody's; lady-teachers (lady-teacher's), maid-servants, fellow-travellers, etc.

It may be observed here that the sibilant is the only inflectional suffix in living English in addition to the verbal suffixes dealt with in the first volume. The inclusion of English among inflectional languages, consequently, is based on the existence of three suffixes only: [iz, id, ɪŋ] with the phonetic variations caused by the form of the stem.

752. Compounds consisting of a classifying genitive and a noun follow the general rule. Many of these combinations, however, are half-compounds only; see below on the form of attributive nouns.

The classical myths viewed in the aspect of baby's stories. Hawthorne, Tanglewood Tales, p. 190.

The wives of the Queen's Counsels gave him at least a fortnight's notice when they asked him to dinner.
J. O. Hobbes, Emotions II ch. 3.

Compound titles also take a final sibilant:

major-generals (or major-general's), lieutenant-colonels (-'s), Lord-lieutenants (-'s), governor-generals (-'s), Lord Chancellors (-'s), Lord Justices (-'s), etc.

753. A group of a title¹⁾ followed by a proper name also has the suffix added to its last element. The title is an attributive adjunct; its subordination to the proper name is formally shown by its weak stress.

The Mr. (Mrs., Miss) Forsters, the Captain Forsters, the Dr. Forsters, etc. Mr. Forster's house, Captain Forster's house, etc.

He called on the Miss Brownings in the evening.
Gaskell, Wives I ch. 1.

1) Whether honorific (*Mr.*) or professional (*captain, professor*) is indifferent.

Among the county people were the two young Mr. Hamleys. ib. ch. 16.

I shall so like to be able to snub those Miss Proudies. Trollope, Framley, ch. 23.

What is interesting in his case is that there are not two Mr. Balfours. Times Lit. 7/5, 14.

Mr. Balfour's speech. King Edward's accession. Miss Thomson's letter.

Plural and Genitive distinguished 754. A good many nouns have traditional forms in a sibilant that serve as a plural, not as a genitive; in these cases, consequently, the two functions, if used at all, are served by distinct forms for each.

There are a small number of forms not ending in a sibilant that may also be looked upon as the plurals of corresponding nouns that do not denote number (as *man*, *men*). In these cases the 'plural' can take a sibilantic suffix to denote the genitive; this shows that the 'plural' is really an isolated form, which takes a genitive-suffix like any other noun denoting a plural idea, such as *people*, *people's*.

Traditional Plurals in a Sibilant 755. Three groups of nouns in a breathed consonant have a voiced consonant in the form with the sibilant, which is used as a plural only:

- (1) some words in -f, as in [kaf, kavz] *calf*, *calves*.
- (2) some words in [-þ], as in [maʊþ, maʊðz] *mouth*, *mouths*.
- (3) one word in -s: [haʊs, haʊzɪz] *house*, *houses*.

The words in -f are the following:

calf ¹⁾	elf	knife	leaf	loaf
half	self	life	sheaf	wolf
shelf	wife		thief	

1) Both *calf* as the name of an animal, and the word *calf* denoting a part of the human leg.

Thus we say [kaf, kavz; wulf, wulvz] *calf, calves; wolf, wolves*, etc.

The change invariably occurs with the following words in [-ɒ]:

bath, path, mouth, oath.

Thus we say [baɒp, baɒz] *bath, baths*, etc.

756. *Staff* [staf] ‘a musical notation by means of five parallel bars’ has a suppletive plural *staves*, the plural of *stave* with the same meaning.

In all other words of the same form (*staff* meaning stick, body of officers assisting officer in high command, body of persons working in a school or for a newspaper, etc.) the plural is usually *staffs*; also in compounds, such as *flagstaffs*. For *tipstaff* the Concise Oxford Dictionary s. v. *tip* gives *-staves*.

They carried staves covered with rolls of canvas.
Kath. Mansfield, *The Garden Party*.

The noun *loaf* converted from the verb *to loaf* ‘to walk about idly’ makes *loafs: to obtain surreptitious smokes and loafs*. Capt. F. Shaw in Cassell’s Magaz. of Fiction, April 1912.

This ‘exception’ shows the traditional character of the plurals with consonant-change.

757. Either breathed or voiced consonants occur in the plurals of *wharf*: [wɔfs, wɔvz] *wharfs, wharves; scarf*: [skɑfs, skavz] *scarfs, scarves*; the plurals with breathed final consonants are rapidly becoming the normal ones.

We occasionally find [selfs] *selfs*, although [selvz] *selves* is the usual form, and the only one that is used in the compound personal pronouns (*ourselves, etc.*).

A good many words in [-ɒ] have both the traditional

and the normal plural, some people saying [ɛz], others [-ɒs]. This is the case with *hearth*¹⁾, *lath*, *sheath*, *truth*, *wreath*, *youth*. The voiced ending is the usual one, at any rate in Southern English; but, being traditional only, it is naturally losing ground.

The voiced ending occurs only when a stressed free vowel precedes *th*. Thus it is never used in the plurals of *death*, *thirtieth*, *health*, etc. And the plural of *cloth* if spoken with [ɛz] always has a free vowel: [klɔðz]²⁾; when the vowel is checked the final consonants are invariably breathed: [klɒps].

758. All these nouns with consonantal variation in the plural have a regular genitive, as far as they are used in that function. Thus we have the plural *wives*, genitive *wife's*; *thieves* and *thief's*; [juðz] *youths* and [juɒs] *youth's*.

759. Two nouns have a shortened sibilantic plural: [daɪ] *die* 'cube for gambling', plural [daɪz] *dice*³⁾. [penɪ] 'copper', as a coin, or the value, plural [pens] *pence*, for the value.

Penny also has an individual plural [penɪz] *pennies*.

The same distinction is usually made between *halfpennies* and *halfpence*.

Take care of the pennies, and the pounds will take care of themselves.

It is a question of pounds, shillings, and pence.

The postage is three halfpence.

1) But not with *birth*, pl. [bəɒs] *births*.

2) Not to be mixed up with the collective [klouðz] *clothes*, which has no corresponding form without a suffix.

3) The technical word *die* 'an engraved stamp used for impressing a design or figure on some softer material, as in coining money' has a normal plural [daɪz] *dies*.

One dollar and eighty-seven cents. That was all. And sixty cents of it was in pennies.

O. Henry, in Sel. Short Stories II 406.

The plural *pence* is so much of an independent word that it is also used in other compounds¹⁾ denoting a coin or a value: *a sixpence; eighteenpence*. These compounds have the regular plural in [iz]: *two sixpences; how many eightpences are there in ten shillings?* This shows the isolated character of *pence*: it is not a living plural of *penny*.

760. Two nouns have corresponding forms **Isolated Forms** in [-n, -rən] that serve as plurals: [ɒks, ɒksn; tʃɔɪld, tʃɔɪldrən]²⁾ *ox, oxen; child, children*.

761. A few monosyllabic nouns (*a*) have corresponding forms with vowel-change, without any suffix, that serve as plurals; one noun of two syllables has vowel-change in both syllables (*b*).

- | | | | | |
|---------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| a. [mæn, men] | <i>man, men;</i> | [laʊs, laɪs] | <i>louse, lice;</i> | |
| | [gʊs, ɡɪs] | <i>goose, geese;</i> | [maʊs, maɪs] | <i>mouse, mice;</i> |
| | [tuɒ, tiɒ] | <i>tooth, teeth;</i> | b. [wumən, wɪmɪn] | <i>woman,</i> |
| | [fʊt, fɪt] | <i>foot, feet;</i> | | <i>women.</i> |

These plurals with vowel-change must be looked upon as suppletive, rather than inflectional, forms. All of them that denote persons: *men, women, and children*, are so completely isolated from the corresponding singular that they can take a sibilantic suffix to serve as a genitive: *men's, women's, children's*. See 828.

762. The following quotation from *The Literary World*, March 18, 1904 proves the traditional character of the forms with vowel-change.

1) The form is [pens] after an unstressed syllable: [eɪtɪn'pens] *eighteen-pence*; [pəns] after a stressed syllable: [təpəns, eɪtpəns] *twopence, eightpence*.

2) The form [tʃɔɪldrən] is exceptional; it is probably a spelling-pronunciation.

We owe to Tit-Bits¹⁾ the discovery of an occasion on which the plural of 'goose' would not be 'geese' but 'gooses'. It would happen if we had to send for 'two tailor's gooses', for 'tailor's geese' would be likely to be misunderstood (!). Yet such is the stupidity of examiners that, if an examinee wrote 'goose, *plural* geese, but sometimes gooses' we expect the answer would not be passed.

Compounds 763. Compound nouns inflect the last elements:

Blackbirds, handfuls, dining-rooms, forget-me-nots, go-betweens, lock-outs, drawbacks (note the spelling), etc.

When the plural is seldom used there is often some uncertainty. Thus we find both *set-backs* and *sets-back*. See 772.

In spite of temporary reactions and sets-back the reputation and popularity of Ronsard have grown continuously throughout the last hundred years.

Times Lit. 2/3, 1922.

764. Compounds in [-mæn] *man*, like those in [-wumən] *woman*, follow the general rule, substituting [men, wimɪn] in the plural:

butterman, buttermen; muffinman, muffinmen; betting-men and cardsharpers (Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 81); *butter-woman, butter-women; Frenchwoman, Frenchwomen*.

Most words in -man, however, are pronounced [-mən] without any distinction of number, although the spelling hides the identity: *footman, footmen*.

The same applies to *countryman, ferryman, husbandman, policeman, fisherman, seaman, Englishman, Chinaman*, etc.

These words are derivatives, with the suffix [-mən], rather than compounds; but the absence of a plural in -s, as in *Romans, Germans*, shows that the connection with [mæn] -man is not completely broken.

1) The statement is to be found in the New English Dictionary, published in 1900.

765. Some nouns in [mən], especially those denoting nationality, are only used for individuals. The whole nation, or a complete group (e. g. an army), is named by using the adjective (generally with the definite article): *the English*, *the French*, etc. The adjective *Chinese* is freely used as a noun (without a plural ending, like the other words in -ese: 785), but for individuals *Chinaman*, *Chinamen* is more usual. See vol. 3 on *Conversion*.

Long before she set sail on the ocean, other peoples — Portuguese, Spaniards, Genoese, Dutch, Frenchmen, and Danes — had explored the waters of the globe.

Times Lit. 18/11, 15.

Similarly *police* is used.

Accordingly at midnight numbers of the police on duty in Westminster and other central districts left their beats.

Times W. 6/9, 18.

766. Appositional groups with *man-* and *woman-*
Groups (also *gentleman-*, etc.) for their first elements pluralize both parts: *men-friends*, *women-clerks*, *women-gardeners*, *women-teachers*, *gentlemen-boarders*, *statesmen-bishops*, etc.

- B. Please don't ask me subtle questions about women.
- I don't profess to understand them. I am a barrister.
- J. You have women clients.
- B. I never have women jurors.

Chapin, New Morality, in Brit. Pl. p. 562.

Occasionally, however, these groups form their plurals by inflecting their second elements only: the reason is that the first element can be looked upon as an attributive adjunct; see 827. It should be remembered that if the first word is a compound of *man*, or a form with the suffix [-mən] (*gentlemen*, *statesman*), it is a question of spelling only.

The salary of woman clerks commences at £ 65, rising by £ 5 annually to £ 110.

The autumn examination for 10 woman and 40

girl clerkships in the Civil Service will take place on October 11.

It was everywhere, that desire: among her fellow-students, among her young man friends, in her mother's drawing-room, and her aunt's studio.

Galsworthy, *Fraternity*.

Below is a list of gentleman cadets who pass out for appointment to commissions in the Regular Army.

There grew up a yeoman class in the village.

Coulton, *Medieval Village* ch. 27 p. 385.

Also: *statesman fathers, statesman sons*.

The singular form is the rule in *woman-suffragists* (thus *passim* in *The Times*), as a derivative from *woman-suffrage*.

When, however, *suffragist* is felt as an apposition to the first part, we also find *women-suffragists*, i. e. women who are 'suffragists'.

The magistrate must surely see that he could not administer the dead letter of the law against the spirit of a new law which was manifest in the women suffragists.

Times W. 13/3, 14.

Sir Edward Carson yielded on Monday to the women suffragists from Ulster who had picketed his house. ib.

767. The collectives *menkind, womenkind* (also in *-folk*) differ in meaning from *mankind, womankind*. In *menkind, womenkind* the second element is a suffix denoting collectivity.

Meredith's theory that women are what their menkind make of them. Sturge Henderson, *Meredith*.

In time one or two of the boldest persuaded their womenkind to call at the corner house.

Sidgwick, *Severins* ch. 1.

He found that their men folk belonged to the several worlds of finance, law, medicine, and politics. ib. ch. 4.

Forty womenfolk.

Bennett, *Leonora*.

768. In other than appositional compounds the first element remains unchanged: *The Man-eaters of Tsavo* (title), *man-hunters*, *man-traps*, *woman-haters*, etc.

But the last of the woman-baiters¹⁾ had passed by now.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 1.

769. Groups consisting of a verbal noun in *-er* and an adverb or of a noun and a prepositional adjunct denote the plural meaning by inflecting the noun.

lookers-on, *passers-by*, *fathers-in-law*, *heirs-at-law*, *three quarters of an hour*, etc.

The Peloponnesian fleet completely eluded the lookers-out of Thrasyllus.
Grote (NED).

The plurals *heirs-at-law*, *fathers-in-law*, unlike *men*, *women*, *children* (755), have no genitive, although they could take a final suffix on formal grounds²⁾: the reason is that English does not possess a genitive plural, i. e. does not distinguish the number of attributive nouns. See 827.

770. In groups of proper names with class-nouns expressing relationship the class-noun is inflected, and can precede or follow.

The Sisters Brontë.

The Brothers Margueritte have decided to dissolve their literary partnership.

Guesses at Truth, by the Brothers Hare.

The three Brontë sisters.

Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 8.

The Pelham brothers found themselves treated with coldness and reserve.

1) i. e. men trying to disturb a woman-suffrage meeting.

2) The groups *looker-on*, *passer-by* cannot take the suffix to serve as a genitive because the attributive function requires the reverse order of words: *an onlooker's testimony*, *a passenger's observation* (or *the observation of a passer-by*).

But class-nouns that do not express relationship invariably follow the proper name; also *brothers* in names of firms (always abbreviated *Bros.*).

The Chapman girls took possession of another corner.
Pett Ridge, Garland, ch. 18.

Baring Bros.

771. The title is inflected when it is the leading element of the group:

(1) in enumerating the different members of a family.

General, Mrs., and the Misses Green.

The very blackest view is the one taken by the numerous Mrs.¹⁾ and Misses Grundy, to say nothing of the almost equally numerous Grundys, Esq.

Occasionally the name is inflected even here:

I found that Captain and the Miss Browns were invited.
Gaskell, Cranford.

(2) in groups with different proper names.

The Misses Mary and Jane Findlater have been studying the question. Times Lit. 24/2, 16.

Lords Dudley, Ripon, Warwick, and Crewe, have presided each of them over the corporations of the towns from which respectively they derive their titles.

Escott, Transformations p. 112.

Drs. Grenfell and Hunt; Messrs. Spencer and Gillen.
Athenaeum.

But the title may also be repeated:

Dr. Grenfell and Dr. Hunt; Mr. Spencer and Mr. Gillen.
ib.

Names of firms, however, invariably take *Messrs.* and *Mesdames*: *Messrs. Robinson & Cleaver*, *Mesdames Palliser*

1) The title is not inflected here, possibly because *Mesdames* is not a current plural of *Mrs.*; perhaps, too, because [mɪsɪz] sounds like a plural.

and Halliday, Dressmakers and Costumiers; clearly because the title is an attributive adjunct; see 753.

Formal English **772.** In formal English, when people strive after what they imagine to be 'correct English', the natural forms are sometimes modified, in accordance with an apparently logical analysis of groups, or with the facts (real or imaginary) of an earlier form of English or some language from which a word has been borrowed.

Thus titles consisting of two elements are often pluralized by adding the suffix to each element:

Lords Lieutenants, Lords Justices, Lords Presidents,
knights-bachelors, etc.

When the last part is supposed to be (or rather: to have been) an adjective, some people¹⁾ inflect the noun only, as in *Lords Lieutenant*, *three Inspectors-General*, *governors-general*, *the two great Poets Laureate of last century* (Verrall, *Lectures on Dryden*, p. 1), *knights errant* (Galsworthy, *Freelands*, ch. 10).

For the same reason the plural of *court martial* is *Courts Martial* in a book (by David Hannay, Cambridge University Press, 1914), although people would naturally say *court martials*.

773. In groups consisting of a title and a proper name the first element is sometimes inflected; it is less familiar than the final inflection. The inflection of the first element is invariable in the direction of letters.

The family friend of the two Miss Jenkynses.

Gaskell, Cranford.

Little Flora Gordon was staying with the Misses Jenkyns.

ib.

The Misses (= To the Misses) Forster.

1) See footnote to 780.

The plural of *Mr.* and *Mrs.* is *Messrs.* [mesəz] and *Mesdames* [me'dam]. The latter is rare.

Messrs. Forster.

And for all the Mesdames Grundy who ever lived . . .
Cassell's Magaz. of Fiction.

Messrs. Watson & Co.

Foreign Words 774. Foreign words often retain their foreign plurals, especially as long as they are little used. Some of them have both the regular English and the foreign plurals. Some are used only in the plural; others do not distinguish number formally.

A good many foreign words take the English plural endings only.

Classical Words 775. Classical words in *-um* change this into *-a* in the plural. Hence the plurals *addenda*, *data* 'things known or assumed as facts, and made the basis of reasoning, or calculation'; *desiderata*, *media*, *strata*, *dicta*.

776. Classical words in *-us* mostly change this into *-i*. Thus *alumnus*, *alumni*; *focus* [foukəs], *foci* [fousai]; *radius*, *radii*; *magus* [meigəs], *magi* [meidzai]; *genius* [dginiəs] 'protecting spirit,' plural *genii* [dginiəi], but also *geniuses*¹⁾.

Apparatus is used both as a singular and as a plural; also *apparatuses*.

A few words in *-us* have a different form in the plural: *genus* [dginiəs], *genera* [dgenərə].

777. Classical words in *-a* mostly change this into *-ae*. Hence the plurals *nebulae* [nebjuli], *minutiae* [main'juʃii].

1) The word *genius* 'man of extraordinary talents' has been completely anglicized, so that the plural is *geniuses*.

778. Classical words in *-is* [ɪs] mostly change this into *-es* [iz] in the plural. Hence the plurals *analyses*, *bases*, *crises*, *hypotheses*, *oases*, *parentheses*, *theses*.

779. Note further:

criterion, plural *criteria*.

larynx [lærɪŋks], plural *larynges* [lærɪndʒɪz].

There are a few classical nouns used in the plural only: *antipodes*, *aborigines*.

Some do not distinguish number formally: *series*, *species*.

780. Some classical plurals have been taken for singulars in English. Hence *antipodes* is sometimes used as a singular, and *agenda* forms a new plural *agendas*; *stamina*, originally the plural of Latin *stamen*, is treated in English as a collective or abstract noun, meaning 'strength, power of endurance'.

Lounsbury (*Harper's Magazine*, Febr. 1906) notes: *Stamina* used as the subject of a plural verb would jar upon the linguistic sense of even the classically educated¹⁾. So men who are aware of its origin employ it almost invariably in the objective case. A few, who are ignorant of its being a Latin plural, occasionally use it as the subject of a singular verb.

781. Some classical nouns have both the foreign and an English plural.

funguses [fʌŋgəsɪz]; *fungi* [fʌndʒɪ].

memorandums, *memoranda*.

automatons, *automata*.

terminuses, *termini*.

formulas, *formulae*.

appendixes, *appendices*.

indexes, *indices*.

1) It is not generally recognized that the usual type of 'classical education', whatever may be its merits in other respects, is apt to rob the victim of his natural linguistic sense, and to substitute for it a desire for 'correctness' based on logic or what passes for such.

Words that are much used often have an English plural: *encomiums*, *millenniums*, *hippopotamuses*, *crocuses*, *censuses*.

All classical words in *-tor*, and *-men* have the English ending: *spectators*, *specimens*, etc. Also *orators*, with shifted stress.

Non-classical 782. There are a few non-classical foreign Foreign Words plurals in English:

bandit [bændɪt], plural *banditti* [bæn'dɪtɪ], also *bandits*.

prima donna, plural *prima donnas* and *prime donne*.

dilettante is distinguished in spelling only from the plural *dilettanti*, both being pronounced [dile'tæntrɪ].

virtuoso [vɪrtju'ouzou], plural *virtuosi* [vɪrtju'ouzai], also *virtuosos*.

seraph [serəf], plural *seraphim* [serəfɪm], also *seraphs*.

cherub [tʃerəb], plural *cherubim* [tʃerəbɪm], also *cherubs*.¹⁾

From French we have *Messrs.* [mesəz], and *Mesdames* [me'dam] to serve as plurals to *Mr.* and *Mrs.*

With Messers Tibble, Cadbury, or Fry.

Gilbert Frankau, *One of Us* p. 75.

Ski [ʃi] sometimes remains unchanged in the plural sense, but there is also a plural *skis*.

Forty years ago it was not considered genteel to run on *ski*. If you wished to progress from one place to another, a sleigh was the proper means of conveyance; *ski* were for the peasant. Times W. 16/1, 16.

783. The names of native races and other words of little-known languages usually remain unchanged.

There was of course a good number of Swahili among my workmen, together with a few Wa-Kamba, Wa-Nyam-Wezi, and others. Patterson, Tsavo p. 119.

These Esquimo called themselves Ogluli Esquimo. Nineteenth Century, Febr. 1908, p. 249.

1) Especially when used to denote little children.

THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

784. In dealing with the use of the plural of nouns (751) it will be necessary to include not only the suppletive plurals with vowel-change (760 f.), but also some words that do not distinguish number, whether as a result of their form or of their meaning. It will be most convenient to enumerate these nouns before entering upon the meanings expressed by the nouns with a plural suffix.

One point must be premised that will be dealt with more fully when the genitive has been treated: the plural can occupy any function in the sentence except that of a plain attributive adjunct to a following noun. Thus [ðə raitəz kærəktəz] refers to a single person in spoken English (*the writer's characters*), and if, in written English, it is used to refer to more than one (*the writers' characters*), this must be shown by the situation, for it cannot be shown by the form. See 860.

785. Some nouns are used in one form only, both in a singular and in a plural meaning. One class consists of the names of nations in *-ese*, and the word *Swiss*.

Canada will exempt from compulsory military service naturalized Japanese and North American Indians.

Times W. 1/2, 18.

The cause is evidently that these words are adjectives, not completely converted into nouns. When there is an alternative word in *-man* (*Englishman*, *Chinaman*) the form in *-men* is used as an individual plural; see 765.

786. Another group is formed by words ending in a sound that may be (and sometimes is) taken for a plural ending:

- (1) alms, means, hustings, mews (with *z*).
- (2) barracks, works (and compounds), vaults, links.
- (3) chicken.

He asked for an alms. A barracks.

This extraordinary result has been brought about by
an even more extraordinary means.

Rev. of Rev. Febr. 1907.

The studio was over a mews.

Strand Magazine Aug. 1927.

Do you remember being on that works?

Bennett, Leonora.

A local munition works.

Times.

We have laid out a small links¹⁾ in the park.

Vachell, Brothers ch. 18.

Our garden is so nice now, and we have over thirty
chicken.

787. In some of these words the final sound is shown
to be interpreted as a plural ending, for we find the
singulars *firework*, *barrack*, *chick*.

She was used to entering Italian palaces and finding
interiors as bare and comfortless as a barrack.

Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 7 p. 185.

Just as the clock struck two they reached Strathspey
House. It seemed as dead in the moonlight as a spent
firework; and Jasmine's heart sank. ib. ch. 4 p. 111.

At first it was nothing more than a fortified barrack
posted on a rocky hillock.

Essays in Legal History p. 233.

Early this morning a large armed party attacked
Loughmore Police Barrack, Tipperary, with bombs and
rifle fire.

Times 20/8, 20.

788. As a final [z] in nouns occurs only as a suffix
(*English Sounds*, ch. VII), the sound suggests the inter-
pretation as a plural in the case of *alms*, *means*, *hustings*
with sufficient clearness to prevent a plural in [iz] being

1) i. e. golf-links.

formed. But there are no forms without *s*; thus *almshouse* (compare *scissor-grinder*, *billiard-player*, etc.).

The same explanation accounts for "the two Vokins" (Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives* ch. 9 p. 228) to denote Mr. and Mrs. Vokins.

789. The words *gallows*, *summons* sometimes remain unchanged in the plural meaning, but we also find *gallowses*, *summonses* (the latter regularly, as a legal term, in *The Times*). The plurals are sometimes avoided; thus I have found *warrants and forms of summons*.

790. Some names of animals have one form only for the singular and the plural: deer, sheep, grouse; cod, salmon, trout.

The country swarms with game—with wolves, and bears, deer and boars. Weyman, *Red Robe* ch. 2.

The Arctic Tungus preserve still the habit of riding their reindeer. Times Lit. 10/8, 16.

Come, I have eighteen hundred sheep.

W. Davies in *Van Doorn, Primrose Path* p. 4.

Several exceptionally large cod have been caught at Great Yarmouth, including two of 26 ft. and 24 ft.
11 oz. Times W. 21/12, 17.

A dozen and a half of small trout from one brook.

Blackmore, *Lorna Doone* ch. 32.

American farmers have already discovered that trout pay — positively pay better than poultry.

Pilot 9/4, 1904 p. 330/1.

He hooked and landed two or three trout.

Academy 9/4, 1904 p. 401/2.

791. Many other names of fishes, birds, and wild beasts are more or less frequently used unchanged in a plural meaning, but they have also a plural form in *s*. This use of the singular is frequent among sportsmen, although it is not limited to them.

It was the first time I had seen one of these fine antelope and I was delighted with the sight.

Patterson, Tsavo p. 139¹⁾.

Antelope are very pretty beasts, standing about thirty-two inches high. Pall Mall Mag. Oct. 1904 p. 177/1.

He was informed that the poachers had gone some considerable distance after elephant.

Daily News, 1912.

Woodcock are unusually plentiful in Devonshire this winter. Times W. 19/1, 17.

The big purveyors were offering six quail or snipe for one coupon. ib. 12/4, 18.

A marble basin containing three gold fish.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 19.

'How cruel!' Anna cried, startled at the nearness of the two fish as they sprang about in an old sugar-box at her feet. Bennett, Anna ch. 10.

In an hour he had killed two dozen small perch and a half-pound dace. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 7 p. 54.

They caught nine mackerel. Bennett, Anna.

The cattle were wandering into the open pastures, the quail were calling. Vachell, Canyon p. 166.

Why did I love my old dog that died las' fall? He wan't no use after quails or ducks. ib. p. 232.

The duck flew over them, quacking loudly. Snipe rose at their feet. ib. p. 73.

The moorland was full of snipes and teal.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 12.

792. The reason for the plural use of these noun stems cannot be in their form. They are often used in a collective sense, however; this explains the use of the numerative *head* before *deer*²⁾. The names of fishes are often used as material nouns.

1) Further examples ib. p. 150 (*giraffe, rhino, bushbuck*, etc.), 193 f., 198 f.

2) It has likewise a bowling-green in it, and having some beautiful lawns, feeds about forty head of deer. In Praise of Oxford I 303.

The North Sea shares with the Newfoundland Banks the credit of being the richest fishing-ground in the world, though I believe there are signs that the number of fish is diminishing. Fish are a great self-replenishing reservoir of human food. Dean Inge, England p. 8.

"It would be a pity to go back without these confounded fish," said Vibart, "because it really was a remarkable catch." Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 4 p. 110.

Although these considerations may explain the origin of the plural use of these words, it should be understood that the unchanged form is also used to denote an individual plural, as in the quotations of *cod* and *trout* in the preceding section.

793. Some words do not change their form in the plural when used in a special meaning. Thus, we speak of the *crafts* of the shoemaker and the carpenter, the *sails* of a ship, and may say that a man killed six rabbits in six *shots*; but the words *craft*, *sail*, *shot* are used without an ending in the meanings illustrated by the following quotations.

Hundreds of frail craft with their still frailer contents come from all parts of the river. Academy, 17/8, 12.

The fleet left the Dardanelles early on Saturday morning. It was composed of the battleships... with from ten to 14 torpedo craft. Times W. 24/3, 13.

A fleet of twenty sail.

The work of building up a fleet of air craft.

Times W. 6/3, 14.

Storm'd at with shot and shell.

Tennyson, Light Brigade.

The Spanish frigate fired two shot, which dropped to leeward of the Favourite. NED.

Shot is exclusively used as a plural or collective noun to denote projectiles, especially balls or bullets as distinguished from explosive shells.

794. *Cannon* is also used unchanged in the plural sense, but *cannons* is found as well.

18 machine-guns and three cannon. Times W. 5/1, 17.

Classification of Nouns

795. For syntactic purposes nouns are divided into two classes:

- (1) class-nouns.
- (2) non-class-nouns.

The division is purely grammatical, not logical. The term *class-nouns* denotes the nouns that express what is treated as countable.

796. Class-nouns are in the first place the nouns denoting *persons*, *animals*, or *things*, either imaginary or real, such as *friend*, *William*, *horse*, *tree*, *devil*, *goblin*. But we must also count among class-nouns such words as *hour*, *mile*, *day*, *pound*, *drink*, *fear*, *virtue*, *hope*, *disease*, *language*, *walk*, *ride*, *soul*, *mind*, *spirit*, which do not denote *persons*, *animals*, or *things*, but share with most class-nouns the capacity of being used in the neutral form (also with an indefinite article or a numeral), and in the plural form with a plural meaning.

797. Names of persons, animals, and things may denote *individuals*, or *groups*, hence we can distinguish individual class-nouns: *tree*, *friend*, and collective nouns: *public*, *police*, *cattle*, *furniture*.

The individual class-nouns can generally be used in a neutral and in a plural form, changing their meaning accordingly. The collective nouns can be used in one number only, and must not be called class-nouns.

There are some class-nouns, however, that may be taken as denoting one individual whole, or as denoting a number of individual persons or things, e.g. *forest*, *family*; these can

be used both in the neutral and in the plural form, like the individual class-nouns; although the meaning is rather that of the collective nouns. We may distinguish this intermediate class as **individual collective nouns**.

798. The other non-class-nouns are names of materials, such as *iron, gold*: *material nouns*; or they denote attributes or phenomena, such as *ability, grandeur, length, width, arrival*: *abstract nouns*.

799. It may not be superfluous for some students to be reminded of the fact that what is looked upon as one word may often be used in very different meanings, so that it may be a class-noun in one sentence, an abstract or material noun in another.

Thus *lamb* may be a class-noun (*a pretty lamb*), but also a material noun (*we are having lamb for dinner to-day*). As a rule *prison* is a class-noun, but it is an abstract noun (equivalent more or less to *imprisonment*) in the following sentence:

The shame attaching to prison deprives a man subsequently of his means of livelihood.

conclusion abstract n.: Our task is happily approaching conclusion.

class-n.: to form conclusions as to Mr. Henry's intentions.

water class-n.: The otter lives in the water (= watery places).

material n.: Happily he fell into water, not into mud.

conjecture class-n.: The conjecture has been accepted by several first rate scholars.

abstract n.: It is only conjecture that when he begged from door to door, he may have besought her for alms.

<i>legend</i>	abstract n.: Legend (i. e. legendary history or tradition) has it that her body became so miraculously heavy that they could not lift her. class-noun: His exaltation of mind had been rewarded by a vision that celestial ministrants had wrapped him in a white robe of supernatural beauty and had led him into the Divine Presence to receive the granting of his petition for the indulgence. How far <i>the legend</i> is fictitious need not be debated.
<i>rustle</i>	class-n.: Amid the rustles which denoted her to be undressing in the darkness other heavy breaths frequently came. Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 6 p. 76.
<i>rain</i>	class-n.: Easter fell early that year; the last days of March held its festival and the winds and rains of that blustering month attended the birth of its primroses. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 p. 111.
<i>advice</i>	class-n.: Such, expressed in the crudest possible terms, is the upshot of the different advices which have been tendered to a distracted Government. Times Lit. 28/9, 22 p. 605/2.
<i>humanity</i>	abstract n.: They denounced slavery as a sin, asserted the humanity of the blacks. collective n.: It is with his usual optimism that John Amos Comenius calls a school that fulfils its function perfectly, "a true <i>officina hominum</i> ," a workshop where men are fashioned, a forge where humanity is hammered into shape.

800. Abstract nouns are occasionally used as class-nouns denoting persons or things. Thus *arrival*, though it usually means the act of arriving, is sometimes used to denote the person who has arrived. Similarly *charge* may mean the person in charge, *acquisition* the thing acquired. These new meanings might also be looked upon as results of conversion.

801. It should also be remembered that it is by no means

easy, or indeed possible, to decide in all cases upon the class to which a noun should be considered to belong, even in a given sentence. Take, e.g., the following sentence:

The forest stretches for miles along the coast, and is full of paths and roads that lead you to unexpected lovelinesses — sudden glimpses of the sea between huge beech trunks on grassy plateaus, deep ravines, their sides clothed with moss, etc. Eliz. in Rügen, p. 125.

Here it seems necessary to call *loveliness* a class-noun, because its plural form may suggest different scenes; hence its plural form is accompanied with a plural meaning. But if it is taken to mean 'kinds of loveliness' it should rather be called abstract. Compare also:

General Savoff and the other Bulgarian Delegates have already arrived in Constantinople. Direct *negotiation* for a settlement... may now be regarded as already opened.

Times W. 5/9, 13.

Official *negotiations* will be opened on Saturday. ib.

802. It will be necessary to deal separately with the class-nouns before turning to the other groups, for they are the chief group of nouns that take a sibilantic suffix to express number.

The meanings expressed by the plural form of class-nouns depend greatly on the adjuncts that may accompany them, especially the articles. As it is not advisable to separate the discussion of the functions of the articles and other qualifying words from the words with which they are closely connected (thus the definite article with the demonstrative pronouns, the indefinite article with the pronoun *one*) the treatment of the use of the plural cannot be exhaustive here, but is rather provisional.

Plural of Class-nouns

803. The plural of class-nouns expresses more-than-oneness; it will be shown that this must be taken literally,

nouns preceded by a fractional number like *one and a half* taking the plural form as well as those preceded by the numerals *two* and upwards. It depends upon the adjuncts and the situation whether the plural expresses individual specimens of a class (*a*), or refers to the ideas in a classifying way (*b*), or in a generalizing way (*c*).

a. Please help me move these chairs out of the room.
The slow train puffed away into the unadventurous country; and the bees buzzing round the wine-dark dahlias along the platform were once again audible.

Mackenzie, Guy and P. p. 9.

After all, even a schoolmaster has some spare time, and I daresay our greatest poets did much of their best work in their spare time. ib. p. 13.

b. What the Greeks only suspected we know well; what their Aeschylus imagined our nursery children feel. Hardy, Native III ch. 1 p. 250f.

The book is priced at four shillings net.

The meeting lasted five days.

Heaton gave up the attempt to swim across the Channel at 11.27 last night, when within one and a half miles of Grisnez.

c. The next day was passed in mere mechanical deeds of preparation. Hardy, Native II ch. 8 p. 194.

.... that zest for existence which was so intense in early civilizations.... ib. III ch. 1 p. 205.

804. When two coordinated attributive adjectives or nouns, usually connected by *and*, refer to two specimens of the idea expressed by the class-noun following the second adjective, the noun generally has the plural form. The qualifying words (especially the definite article) are sometimes repeated. See also the sections on the prop-word *one*.

Much has been said and might be repeated concerning the third and fourth voyages. Times Lit. 15/2, 18.

In the sixth and seventh centuries Ireland was the island of saints and the mother of missionaries.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 16.

The castles and abbeys which were created in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, may be counted by hundreds. Cunningham, Alien Immigrants p. 56.

By far the most important event in the academical history of the thirteenth century was the foundation of University, Balliol, and Merton Colleges.

Brodrick, Oxford p. 15.

As yet these adventurous energies, which were one day to cross the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, were turned to the South-East. Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 163.

b. It was by Anglo-Saxon missionaries from the seventh to the eleventh centuries that Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and Ireland were converted to the gospel.

Stubbs, Lectures p. 16.

S. R. Maitland, The Dark Ages: a series of essays illustrating the state of religion and literature in the ninth to the twelfth centuries (title).

805. When the adjectives qualify a proper name the unchanged stem is more usual.

Nor is the title the Age of Anne more appropriate for a period whose best years began with the last two years of her reign, and culminated under the first and second George. Athenaeum, 30/II, 12.

806. The plural of class-nouns is sometimes used to intensify the idea.

Many soldiers, including some of Garibaldi's own Legion, were, against the *wishes* of their chief, forcibly detained in the Castle of St. Angelo. Trevelyan.

807. Sometimes the plural form of a class-noun is purely the result of its function in the sentence, without modifying the meaning in any way: Thousands lost their *lives* in the recent earthquake. This *plural of concord* will be treated in volume 3.

808. Some nouns in a sibilant, though treated as plurals from a formal point of view, have no corresponding stem without a suffix: *scissors, news, compasses, cross-roads*, etc. They differ from the words in a sibilant in 786 in being invariably, or almost invariably¹⁾, treated as plurals, so that they cannot denote single specimens. For the latter purpose a form-word must be used, a *numerative*; on this, see 818 ff.

Collective Nouns

809. Individual collective nouns do not differ from ordinary class-nouns in their use of the singular and plural forms: *family, families; crew, crews*, etc.

810. The other collective nouns (797) usually have only one form. The following are always used without a suffix:

cattle, public, people, police, swine, vermin, horse ‘cavalry’, foot ‘infantry’, shell, fruit.

Some of these nouns can also occur as class-nouns. In that case they are also used in the plural form with a plural meaning: *peoples ‘nations’, horses, feet, etc.* See 812.

Parliamentary government for the white races, and the desire to govern justly societies not yet prepared for self-government, have so far preserved this astonishing association of peoples.

Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. XVIII.

1) In familiar English the words are sometimes grouped with the nouns of 786.

When you get to a cross-roads you take the one that says Lennox and Broadsheet. Strand Mag. May 1925 p. 282.

A wheezy old bellows. Meredith, Ormont ch. 3.

You can see that it was a very short-bladed scissors.

Conan Doyle, Hound of the Baskervilles p. 56.

There was a considerable amount of discussion and expectation in that more intelligent section of the educated publics¹⁾ of the various civilised countries which followed scientific development.

Wells, *The World Set Free*, Eng. Rev. Dec. 1913.

811. Some of the words in 810 cannot take a plural form and are always used in a collective meaning, e.g. *cattle*, *police*. They can be preceded by a numeral, though even then they never take a plural form. The one but last quotation shows that the construction is sometimes disapproved of.

Twenty clergy walked in the procession.

In every village there are two or three resident gentry.

We are daily told that "addresses will be given by the following clergy," and that "upwards of sixty clergy," illustrated this or that scene. Pilot, 8/2, 1902.

He dwelt specially on the more odious aspects of Stanway's character, and swore that, had Stanway forty womenfolk instead of four, he, Arthur Twemlow, should still do his obvious duty of finishing what he had begun.

A. Bennett, Leonora ch. 4.

812. Many collective nouns always have a plural form: *amends*, *bowels*, *riches*, *fruits* (e.g. *the fruits of the earth* 'produce'), *proceeds*, *sweepings*, etc.

Abstract and Material Nouns

813. Abstract and material nouns generally have no suffix: *virtue*, *absence*; *iron*, *wood*. Some are always plural (often with a collective sense): *curds*, *dregs*, *embers*, etc.

Abstract nouns can even take numerals without undergoing a change. Thus collective names of measures, such as *stone*, *horse-power*, *candlelight*, are used in the neutral form after numerals.

1) Perhaps this should be interpreted as a plural of concord.

An engine of 20 horse-power.

A man weighing 12 stone.

Other abstract and material nouns may have either form: *ash* 'of a cigar', *ashes* 'in the grate'; *it is a great pity*; *it is a thousand pities*; *a man of ability*, or *abilities*; *the waters of the Nile*.

It should be noted that the plural form does not denote a difference of number. It may serve to intensify the meaning, as in the following quotation.

It was a lovely afternoon. The *waters* of the lake, which is twenty miles in circumference, were burnished by the setting sun.

See 806.

814. Sometimes the plural form of abstract or material nouns has a collective sense. This is often intensifying at the same time.

The sands of the Sahara; the heats of the torrid zone; the snows and frosts of an Arctic winter; the waters of the Nile.

The trees were bright green; the spring hopefulness was still unstained by the dusts of summer.

Wells, Country of the Blind, p. 162.

The sands at Margate are excellent for children.

815. We sometimes find the plural form of abstract and material nouns to denote the different kinds or the forms in which the idea or material may show themselves (*a*). Sometimes the plural is due to concord (*b*); see volume 3.

a. Cigars in four *strengths*; extra mild, mild, medium and full.

... ignoring human *frailities* and *weaknesses*.

The book combines historical record and memoirs with a most complete handbook to the natives, *industries* (*kinds of industry*), economic plants, *soils* (*kinds of soil*), climate, diseases and religions of the protectorate.

He was a patron of art, having brought back *ivories* and *bronzes* (*articles made of ivory and bronze*) from Italy.

Tea will also pick up damp to a surprising degree. That is why *packet teas* are hermetically closed. Tit-Bits.

"Look back on this bitterness a year hence and see how trivial it seems" was one of the little *wisdoms* that helped Peter's courage in after years.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 p. 26.

b. Englishmen have a way of thrusting their political *beliefs* and *views* into almost every matter of daily life and business. Escott, *England* I 123.

Mr. Edward Cannon proposed that the whole of the *properties* held within Oxford by the Colleges should be put under one management. Athen. 1/3, 13.

Proper Names

816. Proper names are generally nouns without a suffix: *John, France, the Rhine*, etc.

Those that have a plural form are class-nouns in origin, whether in English itself or in the language from which the name has been borrowed: *the Indies, the Netherlands, the Alps, the Azores*, etc. The use of the article points to the explanation of the form: it is a classifying plural.

817. Proper names of persons can be used as plurals when they denote the whole family, or individuals of the same name or character (*a*); or an individual at different times or according to different interpretations (*b*).

a. She couldn't have cried in front of those awful Samuel Josephs¹⁾. K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 5.

The delighted grandfather cared nothing for what the John Pontifexes might feel or not feel.

Butler, *Way of All Flesh*.

b. There are two Mr. Balfours.

1) The name is *Samuel Josephs*. Cf. *the two Vokins* (788).

Numeratives

818. When a word with a singular meaning has a distinctly plural form there is a natural tendency to avoid using expressions of number, especially singular number, before it. Thus *a wine-vaults* is felt by many as a not quite natural construction (see 808). Hence we often find a noun used before such plural words with the function of avoiding the collocation of an indefinite article or numeral and a plural noun. When such words have no meaning of their own they are called *numeratives*.

819. Such a word is *pair* when used before the plural names of things consisting of two parts¹⁾.)

A little pair of scissors.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 4 p. 39.

A pair of bellows, a pair of trousers, etc.

820. Other words used before nouns with a plural form have retained more of their independent meaning, and are consequently limited in their use: *a flight of steps, a parcel of servants*.

821. Some numeratives are not only used before nouns with a plural suffix but also before abstract and collective nouns without such a suffix. The most important are *piece, bit, head*.

I bought a little book — a piece of extravagance I could ill afford. Brontë, Villette ch. 6.

Strange that such a piece of idling should have seemed an important errand. Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 132.

Mrs. Launce from her little house in Westminster was, as usual, glowing with a piece of other people's happiness.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 3 p. 262.

He had one piece of luck. It froze. Therefore no anxiety about the condition of boots.

Bennett, Card ch. 1 § 5.

1) Not in: *a pair of gloves, etc.*

It concerns a piece of injustice done by you.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 34.

Here is a bit of news that will interest you.

Bernard paid the money and took his leave, delighted that he had made use of his opportunity to get a bit of advice from the great lawyer.

Van Neck, Easy English Prose.

We had a bit of dinner together. Hope, Zenda ch. 2.

822. When an attributive adjective qualifies the noun that requires a numerative, the adjective often precedes its leading noun (*a*); but when its connection with the leading noun is less close, the adjective can also precede the numerative so that it qualifies the whole group that follows (*b*).

a. A pair of rimless pince-nez. Vachell, Canyon.

Now, she found it easier to pretend it was all a piece of agreeable imagination.

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland ch. 12.

I stored up this piece of casual information¹⁾.

Brontë, Villette ch. 3.

Something more than a piece of sentient prettiness.

Wharton, House of Mirth p. 89.

b. An interesting piece of news. A ridiculous piece of affectation.

Times 10/8, 16.

A brilliant piece of patriotic oratory.

Times W. 21/12, 17.

To Sophia she seemed to be a vulgar little piece of goods, with dubious charm and a glance that was far too brazen. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale III ch. 5 § 3.

King Edmund made him (viz. Dunstan) Abbot of Glastonbury, when he had only reached his twenty-second year — a wonderful piece of promotion.

Oman, Conquest p. 536.

It was an idea that came to him from the little piece

1) This sentence shows that numeratives do not exclusively occur when the noun is preceded by an indefinite article or a numeral.

of superstition that he carried about with him -- every Cornishman carries it.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 10 § 3 p. 117.

823. When the numeratives *head* and *pair* are preceded by numerals¹⁾, they remain unchanged (*a*), but *piece* and *bit* take the plural form (*b*).

a. Two pair of scissors, etc.

The ruin of three pair of skis. *Punch* 31/3, 15.

Several pair of breeches.

W. Irving, *Sketch-Book* p. 39.

All my drugs were in the cabinet — a long journey down two pair of stairs.

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll ed.* Schutt p. 118.

Twenty head of cattle (game, etc.); also thirty head of oxen, deer.

Cock-fighting can still be found in the North of England in the quiet, sequestered glades of the northern counties; but the days are gone for ever when men as prominent as the twelfth Earl of Derby would keep three thousand head of fighting cocks at walk at the same time²⁾.

Times Lit. 23/12, 20.

b. She imparted various pieces of news relating to the Towers. Gaskell, *Wives* 2 p. 80.

Mr. Koebel's criticisms and his pieces of advice were in fact familiar to us from his own earlier volumes.

Times Lit. 4/10, 18.

The Board of Education might quite reasonably invite the Universities to co-operate in the carrying on of certain definite pieces of research. *Times Ed.* S. 25/9, 19.

I refer in particular to the completion of two considerable pieces of investigation with which I have been associated.... I wish to record here how much I owe to both the afore-mentioned ladies, in respect of minute

1) *Head* is never used except with numerals. The class-noun *pair* takes the plural suffix: *two pairs of gloves*; see 1444.

2) Note that *head* is here used before a plural noun with a plural (collective) meaning.

details and more general pieces of information drawn from the copious stores of material.

Wyld, Short Hist. 3rd ed. Preface p. V.

824. When the word has an independent meaning of its own, it is not properly a numerative (*a*), but sometimes the distinction is naturally doubtful (*b*).

a. A member of the Bar, of the clergy, of the public, etc.

He burst into a loud peal of laughter.

Each man has a world of his own and sees a different set of facts... The most candid thinkers will come to different conclusions when they are really provided with different sets of fact. Leslie Stephen, Utilitarians I p. 3.

b. Two days later Denry arrived home for tea with a most surprising article of news.

Bennett, Card ch. 8 § 3.

(She) ostentatiously folded unimportant articles of clothing with an exaggerated carefulness.

Sinister Street p. 156 f.

THE GENITIVE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

825. It has been stated in 751 that the noun with *Form* the suffix [iz] serves as a plural or as a genitive, according to the structure of the sentence. This applies to the normal forms only, for the genitive is never expressed by traditional forms such as have been enumerated for the plural function; see 758.

It is only the simple nouns and the genuine compounds, too, that have one form for both functions; in the looser groups the plural suffix, as has been shown above (769 ff.), is often added to the first element of the group. The genitive function, on the other hand, is invariably served by a form with the suffix added to the final element of the group, as illustrated by these examples.

My father-in-law's house; King Edward's accession;

John Lackland's folly; the Prince of Wales's recent tour; William and Mary's reign; his son John's wife, etc.

A special case of the group-genitive is the *double genitive*, i. e. the genitive of a group containing a genitive, as in the following.

Sally's mother's silence about her father...

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 172.

826. Just as in the case of the plural, there are some nouns that do not take the suffix in the function of the genitive, although their meaning would make it possible.

A number of words in a sibilant do not take a genitive suffix. As the genitive is chiefly used of personal names we can begin with the discussion of this group. No genitive is formed from names of persons ending in [iz] or [iz]: *Socrates, Xerxes, Euripides, Thucydides; Robert Bridges*.

A good many classical names, though not ending in these sounds, do not naturally take the suffix: *Aeneas, Pausanias, Epicurus, Venus*, and even the monosyllabic *Mars*.

Many similar names in a sibilant of 'English' or at any rate non-classical origin, and *in current use*, can be used attributively like a genitive without taking the suffix, especially the longer names, although monosyllables are also used attributively without any change of form.

St. Barnabas Day; Mr. Stebbings' last speech (de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 11 p. 319); Mr. Stebbings's pride¹⁾ (ib. p. 321 and 323); Arnold Ferrers's heart¹⁾ quailed for a moment, and he bit his lip (C. Garvice, *Sweet Cymbeline* ch. 10 p. 154); The booking-clerk whose duty it is to examine the cheques, was familiar with Mr. Stevens' signature (ib. ch. 17 p. 244); have you read Wells' [welz, welziz] latest? (Collinson, *Spoken Engl.* p. 70f.); George Carruthers' first day at school (Waugh, *Loom of Youth* ch. 1).

1) The spelling should not mislead the reader: it shows only that the author has been taught a rule of spelling at school, and has not succeeded

Kezia followed, making a face at Mrs Samuel Josephs¹⁾ placket, which was undone as usual.

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 3.

One can hardly avoid the impression that the genitive of *Felix* is avoided in the following sentence on account of its harshness.

There are certain natures, such as *that of Felix*, to whom the claims and exercise of authority are abhorrent.... There are other natures, such as *Sheila's*, who refuse... Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 34.

827. In the groups with *for... sake* the noun does not take the suffix, whether it denotes persons or has other meanings, except personal nouns in a sibilant. We may conclude from this that there is a phonetic cause for the noun-stem in the case of personal nouns.

- for George's [dʒɔ:dʒɪz] sake.
- for John's sake [fə dʒɒn seɪk].
- for goodness sake.
- for old acquaintance' sake.
- for his oath's sake.

Green, Short Hist. ch. I sec. 2.

828. It may be useful to show examples of similar nouns with the genitive in [ɪz].

On the big posters appeared Sir Felix's name as "presenting" the comedy to Manchester.

Vachell, The Fourth Dimension ch. 7 p. 96.

They left the dance before midnight, to be driven out to the Franklidge house by Alice's escort.

Zane Grey, Nevada ch. 13 p. 177.

in regaining his independence in this respect. Similarly in: *Mr. Bridges's essay* (Times Lit. 19.1, 17); *Socrates's face* (Athen. 6.7, 12 p. 6); *Euripides's position* (ib. p. 5), etc. See 908.

1) Sic; see 817.

An hour, instead of a few minutes, seemed to pass: then, to Simcox's joy, Godfrey opened his eyes.

C. Garvice, Sweet Cymbeline ch. 14 p. 205.

I wonder if the Princess's¹⁾ bed was cold?

Vachell, The Triumph of Tim p. 286.

He is clear about the woman's voice: it is his hostess's, of course, no other.

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 10 p. 312.

Appeased by the postmistress's apologies for her first unbelief... Princess Priscilla ch. 7 p. 89.

On the whole it would be more in accordance with their benefactress's wishes to go on doing it.

ib. ch. 5 p. 58.

829. The genitive suffix is never added to nouns with a plural suffix, no matter whether this is final or not. Thus the plurals *fathers*, *fathers-in-law*, and such groups as *the queens of England* never take a genitive suffix, although the groups *father-in-law* or *queen of England* do.

We can state this in another way: English has no genitive plural. The explanation of the apparent exceptions *men's*, *women's*, *children's* has already been given (761).

It may be added here that the plurals *lice*, *mice*, and *geese*, though formally isolated from the noun-stems, do not take a genitive suffix either. See 907.

830. Groups consisting of a verbal noun in *-er* with an adverb, such as *looker-on*, cannot take the genitive suffix because the genitive, being an attributive form, requires the opposite order of words if, indeed, this form exists: thus we can say *an onlooker's testimony*; but other formations of the same kind, such as *passer-by*, have no attributive form (see 769). Compare a verb stem like *gaze up* and the attributive *upgazing*; *bring up* and the noun *upbringing*.

1) Note the stress: [prɪm'sesɪz].

831. Beside the nouns and groups that cannot take the genitive suffix on account of their form, there are some cases when the genitive does not occur although there are no formal objections. Thus such combinations as *a man of sense*, *a man of merit* never take the suffix. The reason may be that the group is not a permanent one, hence not close enough to be taken as a whole; compare *the prince of Wales*, which does take the suffix.

The same reason must probably account for the difference between coordinated groups like *William and Mary's reign* and the following.

Upstairs in her father's and mother's room she found
a pillbox ... Mansfield, Bliss p. 6.

In Tod's and Kirsteen's room she found a little table¹⁾.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 31 p. 395.

A review of Kastner's and Charlton's *Poetical Works
of Sir William Alexander*.

Engl. Assoc. Bulletin no. 7 (April 1931) p. 3.

832. Just as the stem and the plural of nouns have been paralleled with pairs like *man* and *men*, etc., it is convenient to combine the treatment of the genitive of nouns with parallel forms in the pronouns. Such parallel forms are the interrogative- relative *whose*, and the group of possessive pronouns, i. e. pronouns that may be looked upon as the genitives corresponding to the personal pronouns, and formally resembling the other 'oblique' forms of these pronouns. It is of no importance syntactically that the possessives have special attributive and independent forms. For these details, and other points concerning the pronouns only, see the sections specially devoted to them.

¹⁾ The room is shared by Tod and Kirsteen.

Use **833.** The genitive of nouns and pronouns is chiefly used with reference to persons. The personal genitive is used:

- (1) as a *pre-genitive*, i. e. before its leading noun;
- (2) as an *independent genitive*, i. e. not accompanying its leading noun;
- (3) as a *post-genitive*, i. e. following the leading noun with *of*;
- (4) as an *absolute genitive*.

The attributive pronouns *its* and *their* and the independent form *theirs* are used with reference to other than persons in the same way as the personal genitives; it is convenient to include them here. A special discussion of these forms will be found in the chapter on the *Character of the Genitive* (880 f.).

834. The relation of the genitive and the leading noun is essentially the same as that of a personal subject and a *verbal predicate*. Hence the relation cannot be defined by any exact formulas; compare *John's* (or *his*) *friends*, *messenger*, *enemy*, *master*, *pupil*, *family*, *followers*, *height*, *illness*, *wit*, *gratitude*, *train*.

If the leading noun is the name of an object, the genitive may, and often does, express the possessor, as in *John's new house*; but it may mean that *John* is the architect. If the leading noun expresses (or suggests) an action, the genitive may denote the agent: *John's speech*. Less often it indicates the object of the action: *John's accusers*. These last two functions are often distinguished as the *subjective* and the *objective* genitive, but the distinction is frequently of no importance; for *John's (his) accusers* does not really differ at all from *John's (his) speech*: in both cases *John* can be thought of as the subject of a verbal sentence, for just as the first group may suggest that *John has spoken* (or *will speak*), the second may be supposed to

express that *John has accusers*, or *people that have accused him*. It often depends upon the situation only in which sense a genitive must be taken; thus it is quite evident to a reader of the book from which the following quotation has been taken that the mother has been painted, and is not a painter herself¹⁾:

We've come to see my mother's portrait.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrex ch. 1.

He had in earlier days seen her portrait. ib. ch. 1 § 3.

It will be found that the objective genitive of the personal pronouns is quite usual, whereas nouns and the relative *who* use it only exceptionally in spoken English.

835. A pre-genitive of a personal noun (*a*) or of a pronoun (*b*) is used as an attributive defining adjunct to the following noun.

Pre-Genitive *a.* A joyous shout greeted Mr. Arnold as he placed little Louise in her nurse's arms.

Consider how little of it was known to Matthew Arnold's generation. G. Murray in Essays III, 8.

In a small place like this there is a good deal of curiosity about other people's affairs.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 74.

The men had a good time but the women's lives must have been deadly. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 151.

The blood rushed to Lily's forehead.

Wharton, House of Mirth, p. 99.

When she had been at Bowick about three months, a boy's leg had been broken, and she had nursed him.

Trollope, Dr. Wortle ch. 2.

That is and will be Mr. and Mrs. Julius Bradshaw's memory of those three days or so.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 30 p. 326.

... retributive pain will be inflicted on the truth-

1) Several examples will be found in 835 *b*; see also the last sentence of 835 *a*.

haters by the first shocking truths, whose repetition will gradually build up in those who read them an immunity to pain.... Huxley, Vulgarity p. 21.

b. By their conversion the Angles and Saxons were transformed into members of the community of Europe. Pearsall Smith, Eng. Lang. p. 153.

The old man frequently stretched his eyes ahead to gaze over the tract that he had yet to traverse.

Hardy, Native I ch. 2 p. 9.

Now, as they pursued their way, the reddeleman occasionally left his companion's side, and, stepping behind the van, looked into its interiors through a small window. ib. I ch. 2 p. 11.

The traveller with the cart was a reddeleman — a person whose vocation it was to supply farmers with redding for their sheep. ib. I ch. 2 p. 10.

Every one of us has his little bit of Psychical Research, which he demands respect for from others, whose own cherished private instances he dismisses without investigation. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 25 p. 265.

I begin by referring to two matters which seem to be unknown to many readers of Jane Austen, and which all her readers¹⁾ would certainly like to know.

Bradley in Essays II.

That to the left was still entitled "father's chair," although its owner had not sat in it since long before the Crimean war. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 3.

The while, I look around at my books and pictures, tasting the happiness of their tranquil possession.

She (*viz.* the Princess) is much prettier than her pictures.

Although Pope affected to call poetry an idle trade he devoted his whole life to its pursuit.

Dennis, Age of Pope p. 27.

The town of Blantyre had been established by Scotch missionaries to preserve Livingstone's memory and his work. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 3 § 3.

1) See 834 on the 'objective' genitive.

Word-groups denoting persons are also used in this way, as shown in the examples in 825. It may be observed here that the free groups do not occur in the other uses of the genitive that are treated in the succeeding sections.

836. A double pre-genitive of nouns is unusual. It is chiefly found when the first genitive forms a unit with the next word. In other cases a double pre-genitive is uncommon, there being an alternative construction with *of*. Thus instead of saying *my wife's nephew's speech* we can say *the speech of my wife's nephew*.

A triple genitive is still rarer. It is an uneducated speaker who uses it in the last quotation here.

At this point I began to despair of ever reaching *The Limes*, which was the name of Miss Spencer's father's house. de Morgan, Vance ch. 15.

Ellen's friend's people. Wells, Harman ch. 4.

Lady Malloring, will you please let the Gaunts stay in their cottage and Tryst's wife's sister come to live with the children and him?

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 12.

Two years ago Burrows's¹⁾ son's wife's nephew was floating paper boats in the front hall.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 1, p. 15.

The pre-genitive is also used in appositions.

Beowulf, who was a young man at the time of Hygelac, his uncle's, death. Essays V, 77.

837. A genitive of a noun or pronoun may occur as part of an object (*a*) or of a prepositional adjunct (*b*), when the person denoted by it is the person concerned in the action. The peculiarity of the construction consists in the grammatical subordination of the person, although,

1) [barouziz]. The form is hardly used in Standard English; see 826.

from a psychological point of view, the person might rather be looked upon as the chief element of the group.

a. He saved his friend's life twice.

He saved my life.

The dog licked his hand.

He went to Osborne and kissed the Queen's hand.

He saw her always as he had seen her last night when she had caught his arm crying...

Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 6 p. 298.

b. You came to my aid in the nick of time.

The heat flew to Eustacia's head and cheek. She instantly guessed ... Hardy, *Native* II ch. 6 p. 174.

A small boy with his hat on one side got into the carriage, stepped on Peter's feet without apologising, and he... Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 4 § 3 p. 45.

Harry Webb was quite as excited as I was, but when I looked in his face, with its pale, delicate features, etc.

Sweet, *Primer of Spoken Engl.* p. 53.

He felt her arms tremble, and so he turned his curly head and looked in her face.

Burnett, *Fauntleroy* ch. 1.

When his fellow-townsmen condoled with him he laughed in their solemn faces. Vachell, *Quinneys'*.

838. Sometimes there is a second construction, in which the person concerned has what seems to be the grammatical function of a direct object. This is a natural construction in the case of transitive verbs (*a*); see 1212. But it is quite frequent, too, with a few verbs of seeing that are essentially intransitive, so that the noun or pronoun cannot be called an object, unless we consider it a special case of the indirect object (*b*); such verbs are *to look*, *to stare*, *to gaze*.

a. He kissed the girl on the forehead.

The dog bit him in the leg.

He shot himself through the leg.

Mr. Zanti clapped him on the shoulder.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 § 3 p. 108.

Then the dog went to Ralph the man, and pulled him by the coat and pulled at him till he brought him to the ditch. Sweet, Primer of Spoken English p. 48.

b. With death staring them in the face, the men felt comfort in knowing that the women and children were beyond the reach of harm. Van Neck, Easy Prose.

He stopped, however, and came back and looked her straight between the eyes with his steady, searching stare.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 6 p. 49.

Wildeve looked her in the eyes.

Hardy, Native IV ch. 6 p. 349.

He turned round, looked me straight in the face for the first time since he has been here, and said, "Do I look like Graf X —— (a great local celebrity), or like a monkey?" Elizabeth.

The sentences under *b* may be compared with the last three quotations of 837*b*.

It is evident that there is often a real, if mostly slight, difference between the two constructions. The personal object more distinctly denotes the person as concerned in, or affected by, the action. For this reason there is no alternative to 'The minister kissed the Queen's hand'.

We seem to have a blending of two constructions, possibly as a result of hurry, in the following sentence.

There was a note of command in her voice, and, as he obeyed her, she looked *at him straight in the eyes*: 'What is it you have come to tell about Donald?' Strand Mag.

She looked *at him straight in the eyes*.

Parker, Judgment House p. 56.

839. The independent personal genitive is used when the leading noun has been mentioned.

Independent Genitive The possessive pronouns have a special form for the independent function by the side of the attributive forms; see 985.

a. I declare, Caudle, you seem to care no more for the child than if it was a stranger's. Jerrold.

She put her arm through her mother's.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 9.

The one thing a painted portrait cannot give is a man's voice. More's was clear and penetrating.

Everyman, 6/12, '12.

b. There ought to be an excellent setting for a readable novel to amuse poor folk in such a plight as mine.

Barbara p. 23.

In M. Meyer's experiments the time of vibration is shorter than in most of mine. Sweet in Herrig's Archiv.

They (i. e. the English barons) treated the whole matter as one between themselves and the royal favourites who stood between them and the offices which they regarded as rightfully theirs. Constitutional Essays p. 163.

840. The use of this construction when the leading noun *follows*, is far less usual (*a*). Its position at the head of a sentence, as in the following quotations under *b* and *c*, is purely literary.

a. If I wanted to make a boy love Homer, I should give him Pope's in preference to any other verse translation. Omond in Essays.

b. But Humphrey's was not a nature that could long remain absorbed in thought.

Montgomery, Misunderstood.

Goldwin Smith's is no longer a name to conjure with.

Athenaeum, 24/5, '13.

c. Ours is emphatically a day of profound and rapid changes. Athenaeum, 28/3, 14.

Post-Genitive 841. In a group like *my father's house* the word *house* is made definite by the genitive. Hence the leading noun requires the definite article if we use an adjunct with *of*: the *house* of my father¹⁾.

1) The same applies to the genitive pronouns, as usual. For a case like

It should also be noted that the adjectives, pronouns, or other qualifying words preceding the genitive serve to qualify the genitive, and not the leading noun: in *my father's house* the word *my* qualifies *father's* and not *house*. It follows that an attributive adjunct qualifying the leading noun cannot precede the genitive, but must follow it. In *my father's fine horses* the genitive *my father's* is followed by the noun with its adjunct. But this order of words is not always possible, as in the case of articles and pronouns. We cannot say, e. g., *my father's this house, my father's a picture*. In that case the genitive must follow the leading noun with the preposition *of*: *this house of my father's, a picture of my father's*.

Sometimes the construction is required because there is no adjunct to the leading noun, which is to be taken in a general sense: *pictures of my father's*.

This construction is called the *post-genitive*. It is used of personal nouns only.

842. The post-genitive occurs:

- (1) when the leading noun is to be taken in a general sense; it is either in the form of the noun-stem with the indefinite article, or in the plural;
 - (2) when the leading-noun is qualified by some pro-nominal adjunct (a numeral, a demonstrative or indefinite pronoun).

a. They were informed that a friend of the king's was suspected to be forcibly confined within the Castle of Zenda. Hope, Zenda.

the following, where the leading noun is to be taken in a general sense, although it is preceded by a genitive pronoun, is exceptional, and literary rather than colloquial English:

Hence, no doubt, the bond that united him to Mr. Richard Enfield, his distant kinsman, the well-known man about town. Stevenson. Dr. Jekyll p. 3

She is a protégée of the admirable Mary's.

Mrs. C. N. Williamson, Cancelled Love p. 103.

This was a taste of Bernard Longueville's who had a relish for serious literature. Henry James.

This realism of Carlyle's gives a great charm to his histories and biographies. Birrell, Obiter Dicta p. 6.

I will, however, venture to take a sentence or two of Pater's. G. Murray in Essays.

The collection comprises in all 838 letters of Madame du Deffand's. Athenaeum.

No eloquence of her lover's could move her from this resolve. Braddon, In Great Waters.

"This comes of a man making such a will as that of Bold's," he continued. Trollope, Barchester Towers.

To me too it seems that if any work of Bunyan's is to be read in schools it should be his greatest work.

Prof. Firth, Journal of Engl. St. I.

He would not have liked Tommy Grainger or Lonsdale to have rooms like this one of Hazlewood's.

Sinister Street p. 582.

Soon after leaving school she admitted reading something of Cobbett's. Gaskell, Brontë ch. 7.

What Bremmil said and what Mrs. Bremmil did is no concern of any one's. Kipling, Plain Tales (T.) p. 22.

Well, that wasn't bad sparring of Mel's¹⁾.

Meredith, Harrington p. 6.

— and work of Mr. Noyes's could never altogether lack merit. — Athen. 17/4, '15.

These boys are friends of my brother's.

b. . . and pondered on what he had seen and heard touching that still loved-one of his.

Hardy, Native I ch. 9 p. 103.

"Where are you going?" — "Never mind where I am going; it's no business of yours."

Sweet, Element. no. 27.

1) In this sentence, *of Mel's* is an adjunct to *that* rather than to *sparring*. See 842.

843. As in the case of the pre-genitive (839) the leading noun may be inferred from a preceding sentence.

a. "Is he a great friend of yours?"

"No, but he is of my mother's."

Hichens, Ambition ch. 8.

All the more welcome is a book like this of Mr. Sugden's. Times Lit. 12/9, 1929 p. 699/2.

b. They seemed to belong to another age, an older age, an age when things spiritual were different from this of ours and less certain; an age when omens and witches were credible, and ghosts beyond denying.

Wells, Country p. 234.

Let me try to describe to you what sort of home this was of mine and what manner of people my father and mother were. Wells, Dream ch. 2 p. 21.

844. The prepositional genitive-group may be completely separated from the leading noun, especially in the case of the personal pronouns. The case may be limited to interrogative sentences of the nominal type.

What business was it of hers?

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 10.

What concern was it of theirs what Mr. Fenwick did?

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 5 p. 49.

845. Nouns preceded by a defining article are not seldom used with a post-genitive.

a. I call particular attention to the following letter of Charlotte's, dated July 10th, 1846.

Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 14 p. 237.

She honestly loved orchestral music divorced from words. But the music of Claude's which she knew was joined with words. Hichens, Ambition ch. 17 p. 198.

Ancestry is, in fact, a matter concerning which the next observation of Rose's has some truth.

Hope, Zenda ch. 1.

Iphigenie is, perhaps, the only important work of Goethe's in which the lessons of Greece are faithfully applied. Times Lit. 9/12, '20.

b. He told them that the house of theirs to which he alluded was this their church.

Trollope, *Barchester* p. 192.

846. The post-genitive after nouns qualified by an interrogative pronoun is rarely found.

What enemy of Bruce's joined the English?

Van Neck, *Easy Prose* no. 16.

847. The post-genitive expresses the same relations as the pre-genitive. The objective relation, however, is rare. See 886 f.

a. Of course her world was very limited — yet no admirer of Jane's is likely to complain of that.

Lady Sackville, *Introduction to Jane Austen* (Regent's Libr.) p. XII.

b. It is thought... that this Old Saxon poem was written by the writer of the *Heliand* or by some imitator of his in Old Saxony.

Stopford Brooke, *Chambers's Cyclop.* I, 22.

Naturally therefore, we should expect to find her a great landscape painter...; nor may a student of hers tell whether he cares more for her people or for the keen air and the scent of the moor.

Times Lit. 13/4, 16.

A worshipper of hers. Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 27.

848. We occasionally find both the genitive and the pronoun *every* before the noun, rarely *either*.

a. Her own apathy with regard to her husband had given way completely now to a desire to anticipate and meet Mr. Harman's every wish.

Wells, *Harman* ch. 11 § 13.

b. The children hung on his every word.

Montgomery, *Misunderstood* ch. 3.

This task will take up his every spare moment.

Daily News, 9/2, 12.

Cacti were planted on its either side.

R. Haggard, *The Holy Flower*.

849. Both the pre-genitive (1) and the post-genitive (2), of nouns¹⁾ and pronouns, can be made emphatic by adding *own*. They emphasize the contrast 'to somebody else' or 'other people'.

- (1) *a.* It's my father's own wish that I should ask you.
b. It is my own house.

I have come of my own accord.

Of Canon Ainger we may almost say that he has become prominent in his own despite. Times.

To the annoyance of his agent the earl occasionally asked his own questions, and used his own eyes and ears in the management of the smaller details of his property. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 1.

(He) determined to aid her to be happy in her own chosen way. Hardy, *Native* I ch. 9 p. 96.

His style was entirely his own. Times Lit. 16/12, 20.

- (2) But taken as a whole, the scene has a wild beauty of its own. Green, *Short Hist.* 1 sec. 2.

I've tried to plan you a house with some self-respect of its own. Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 8 p. 107.

The authoress has convictions of her own to expound. Times Lit. 19/10, 16.

Lapland, indeed, has amenities of its own.

Times Lit. 12/10, 17.

Absolute Genitive
of Nouns

850. The genitive of nouns denoting persons (not of pronouns) is used, without a leading noun, to denote places, especially more or less public buildings or institutions (shops or firms, churches, schools, hospitals, etc.).

1) The post-genitive of nouns with *own* is rare, if it occurs at all.

The *absolute* genitive may be any part of the sentence (subject, object, etc.), like the noun stem (*a*). But it is especially used in prepositional adjuncts of place; the genitives of nouns expressing relationship (*uncle*, etc.; also *friend*) are exclusively so used; in this case the genitive denotes a private house. The absolute genitive may be accompanied by an apposition (*b*).

The use is restricted to nouns expressing a relationship, trade or profession, and proper names.

a. I only came down last night; I'm staying at my aunt's. — And I'm staying at my uncle's.

Sweet, Elem. no. 64.

Only the tobacconist's and the newspaper-shop in Fortress road were open. Pett Ridge, Name of Garland.

It was at this moment that I met Godfrey Biscoe, whom I had not seen for about ten years and whom I had last met most unaccountably in my tailor's, where he was choosing himself a suit.

Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea ch. 1 p. 13.

Closing the side door of Masters's she went across to the kerb.

ib.

An aunt of mine has a baker's and post-office combined in Somers Town¹⁾.

This is the only decent road there is about here, except the one that goes round by Gadbrook's.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 71.

With regard to Ripman's 'Sounds' Dent's will now only accept orders for this book when they are to be sent abroad.

Miss Dunstable thinks that she will be able to come to us for a couple of days after we leave the duke's.

Trollope, Framley ch. 3 p. 29.

Before the altar of St. Mary's²⁾.

Crawford, Parish p. 197.

1) Observe the coordination of the genitive and the noun stem *post-office*.

2) This quotation shows that the absolute genitive when used as an *of*-adjunct, as here, produces a group that is *outwardly* identical with the post-genitive.

St. Paul's is a beautiful specimen of Wren's architecture.
... or, what was the name of that lady (or gentleman)
at the So-and-so's?

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 30 p. 317.
Milton was educated at St. Paul's.

b. She was going to Grimstead's, the bookseller of
Hollingford¹⁾. Gaskell, *Wives III* p. 82.

He had been dining at Mr. Farquhar's, the secondary
squire of the parish.

George Eliot, *Scenes (Amos Barton* ch. 2 § 4).
At whose house?²⁾ — At their uncle's. — At Mr. Smith's.
At the Jones's [dgounziz]. Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 6f.

Absolute Possessive 851. The independent possessives are used in combination with the personal pronouns to denote a person's family.

Please send me one line (or more), with news of you
and yours. Life of Ainger p. 142.

While our labourers are treated and housed more
like dogs than human beings, . . . , neither I nor mine
are going to rest. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 22.

The Genitive of Names of Animals

852. Names of animals are freely used in the genitive.
This genitive is chiefly attributive; it generally precedes
its leading noun, but is occasionally found without one,
when the word occurs in another part of the sentence.

We soon heard the thunder of a pheasant's rise close
to us. Sweet, Pr. of Sp. Engl. p. 61.

They had heard the clattering of a horse's hoofs down
the mountain about midnight.

1) The types to Grimstead, the bookseller's and to Grimstead's, the
bookseller's are instanced by Poutsma ch. 24 § 4.

2) The omission of *house* would be impossible.

The Classifying Genitive

853. In all the instances quoted until now the genitive served to define the leading noun. It may happen, however, that the noun in the genitive is taken in a general sense so that its function is rather that of denoting the class to which the idea expressed by the leading noun belongs. Thus *a robin's nest* may mean '*the* nest of an individual robin', but it more frequently expresses a class of nest. We may distinguish the latter meaning by calling it the *classifying* genitive, in contrast to the *specifying* genitive dealt with until now.

854. The classifying genitive occurs as a pre-genitive of names of persons and animals; the latter, indeed, are more frequently used in the classifying than in the specifying genitive. The most important difference between the two kinds of genitive, apart from the difference in the meaning of the genitive noun itself, is in the accompanying adjuncts. In discussing the post-genitive we have seen that it is characteristic of the pre-genitive that the words preceding the genitive qualify the noun in the genitive and not its leading noun. This applies to the specifying genitive only; for in the case of the classifying genitive the adjuncts preceding it usually refer to the leading noun¹⁾, or rather to the whole of the genitive group: in *the flighty Bishop's niece* (Times Lit. 30/7, 1914) both *the* and *flighty* are adjuncts to *niece*, or to *Bishop's niece*, not to *bishop*. Similarly in *a little quiet, resolute clergyman's daughter* (Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 8), and in the following cases.

- a. It is greatly to the credit of the Rossettis that they

1) See 856.

never allowed this most spiritually gifted and physically fragile among them to face the grind of a governess's life. Dorothy M. Stuart in Engl. Assoc. Pamphlet no. 78 (1931) p. 3.

He entered the room in his miner's dress.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 12.

Mrs. Hale turned her face to the wall, and lay perfectly still in her mother's despair.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 14.

The tall stripling in his middy's uniform. ib. ch. 80.

And lonely, in his chairman's seat at the top end old Sylvanus Heythorp sat, with closed eyes, still and heavy as an image. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 45.

There was something almost touching in the stare of those puppy dog's eyes¹⁾. ib. p. 90.

The chief point of resemblance is that each woman, a naturally affectionate creature and half her husband's age, had to bear the unlucky burden of his artist's temperament. Times Lit. 20/12, 1928 p. 997/3.

She held up the volume with the yellow Mudie's label.

Walpole, Green Mirror I ch. 1 § 6 p. 24.

Outside Damascus, Lady Hester was warned that the town was the most fanatical in Turkey, and that the scandal of a woman entering it in man's clothes, unveiled, would be so great as to be dangerous.

Lytton Strachey, Books and Char. p. 285.

It is well for the soul's health of the artist²⁾ that a definite boundary should separate his garden from his farm. Raleigh, Style p. 7.

b. The great enemy of small town birds is the cat; and the robin's nest is peculiarly exposed to cats' forays.

We found lark's eggs, woodpigeon's eggs, and a hundred kinds of eggs; and the big blackbird's nest was soon filled, and a thrush's nest besides.

Sweet, Spoken English.

1) The reference is to a man.

2) This adjunct qualifies the group *soul's health*.

When I looked out of window, I thought I saw something white with long ears like a cat's.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 69.

When the beetle's flight takes him by village or hamlet,... Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 4 p. 74.

Three ejected robin's eggs¹⁾ were lying on the bank a little lower down. ib. ch. 1 p. 22.

A robin's nest with three robin's eggs...

ib. ch. 1 p. 15.

Marvellous as the power of the young cuckoo is when the fit is on him, it is of course limited, and when watching his actions I concluded that it would be impossible for him to eject eggs and nestlings from any thrush's nest. The blackbird's would be too deep, and as to the throstle's he could not move backwards up the sides of the cup-like cavity on account of the smooth plastered surface²⁾. ib. ch. 1 p. 20.

855. The genitives of *men*, *women*, and *children* are also used as classifying genitives.

Superior dress material for ladies' and children's wear.

856. The character of the genitive is sometimes doubtful. Thus, in the third quotation of 854 *b a cat's (ear)* might perhaps be interpreted as a specifying genitive. Similarly in the following sentence.

... hence we have the *Cursor Mundi* and the collection of Mystery plays, without which there would not have been in later times a Milton's *Paradise Lost* or perhaps even a George Herbert's *Temple*.

L. Toulmin Smith, *Gorboduc*, Introduction.

The adjunct preceding a genitive may also qualify the genitive noun, even though it is a classifying adjunct, as

1) i. e. three eggs ejected by the young cuckoo.

2) This example is added to illustrate the independent classifying genitive.

in this case: *tens of thousands of small birds' nests* (Hudson, *Hampshire Days* ch. 1 p. 20).

857. Many combinations of classifying genitives and nouns are of a more or less permanent character. These traditional groups naturally assume the character of compounds. This is also shown by the use of *horsehoofs* by the side of *a horse's hoofs*, *horses' hoofs* (Soon I hear the distant stamp of horsehoofs. Fairless, *Road-Mender* II p. 13). Hence, too, a group like *bird's nest* can be the basis of a verbal ing; and *bird's eye* comes to be used attributively in *a bird's eye view*.

There was a Noah's flood of oratory yesterday.

Observer, 5/11, 22.

Again her rogue's eyes gleamed¹⁾.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 10.

(He) took his horseman's cloak and left his tent.

M. Arnold, *Sohrab and Rustum* l. 9.

The lady's hair no woman could possess without feeling it her pride. It was the daily theme of her lady's maid.

Meredith, *Feverel* ch. 13.

Work or suffering found her listless and dejected, powerless and repining; but gaiety expanded her butterfly's wings.

Brontë, *Vilette* ch. 14.

The giant's task of reconstruction that lies before us.

Times Ed. S. 12/7, '18.

Miss Wylie has also a proper woman's hero in her Tristram.

Times Lit. 6/1, '16.

858. The difference between free classifying genitives and genitive-compounds is often clear from the stressing; the compounds frequently have uneven stress, as in [leidizmeɪd] *lady's maid*, also in *bridesmaid*, *birdseye*²⁾; and

1) Compare ib. on the next page: *Her rogue eyes gleamed from under a heavy frown.*

2) a kind of tobacco.

in the genitives of these groups with *nest*. For a free genitive and its leading noun have even stress; thus even stress is marked in Sweet's *Primer of Spoken English* for *Ned's dog* (p. 9), *Ned's calls* (p. 61), *a pheasant's rise* (p. 61), *the gentleman's dogwhistle* (p. 61), *Ramsay's garden* (p. 64), etc. But we have uneven stress in the groups with *nest* and *egg*, although in this case the difference of stress is not so marked: [aulz nests, kukuz egz, dzeiz nests] with medium stress on the second element (*Primer*, p. 51, 52).

Uneven stress is no absolute proof of composition, for it may be due to contrast.

Many think that legal reform is of necessity *a lawyer's business* and that a layman cannot understand, much less solve the problems of it. Edinb. Rev. April 1917.

859. In a specifying genitive the number expressed by the genitive noun is usually singular; in a classifying group the number is usually indefinite: it makes no difference in the interpretation of the group *three robin's eggs* whether we take *robin* as a representative 'singular' (three eggs of a robin) or as a plural. The same applies to the following cases, although English writers, misled by the teaching of Latin grammar, which is 'applied to' English as if Latin were the standard of human speech, attempt to make a distinction between a 'singular' genitive *robin's* and a 'plural' genitive *robins*.

I know I have not that much; and yet men set me down in their fool's books as a wise man.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 41.

A syndicated system of baker's shops.

Wells, Harman ch. 5 § 4.

Everyman's Library is certainly making giants' strides towards the satisfaction of his requirements.

Times Lit. 23/4 '14.

Sparrows' and starlings' nest... Cuckoo's eggs are very small for the size of the bird.

Times W. 24/5, '18.

Unable to secure for her offspring the advantages of a respectable home in any other way, she (i. e. the cuckoo) places her eggs, one by one, in a series of other birds' nests.

ib.

Mr. Bob Sawyer's bachelors' party.

Ward, Dickens p. 24.

It's only a lovers' quarrel.

Sweet, Elementarbuch no. 73¹⁾.

It tells the story of how three girls came to spend their holidays in an empty boys' school.

Times Lit. 9/12, '15.

Similarly: *the masters' common-room, the mistresses' cloak-room.*

Most of the labourers' cottages¹⁾ about here are built in this style.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 74.

"Besides, chaps' uncles don't get gone on —" Michael was going to add 'chaps' sisters' governesses', but somehow he felt the remark was all wrong, and he blushed the conclusion of the sentence. Sinister Street p. 163.

860. In all styles of *written* English nouns denoting persons and animals are used in an attributive specifying function as 'plural' genitives; they are usually written with an apostrophe.

Stanley's three keepers' wives had just baked their annual rook pies.

Galsworthy, Freeland's ch. 5.

Where both writers' characters are unlike human beings is in this — that they do not even value anything decent.

Times Lit. 9/12, '15.

The Poles must learn to see their own faults as well as their enemies'.

Stubbs, Lect. p. 17.

1) Even stress.

The following is the official translation of the Allies' Reply to the German Peace Note. Times W. 5/1, '17.

But we can only guess at the sandy trysting-place of Man Friday and Robinson Crusoe, and we are unlikely to explore on Shanks' mare the fabulous island of Monte Christo. Times Lit. 30/7, '14.

Genitive of Nouns of Measure

861. The genitive of other nouns than those denoting animate beings is used in a number of cases that are more or less standing groups, although new forms may be made by analogy. Few of the characteristics of the animate genitive apply to these cases:

- (1) the nouns are names of measures, chiefly *time* or *distance*.
- (2) when the noun in the genitive denotes another measure than time or distance, the leading noun is usually also a noun expressing measure: *a pound's weight*¹).
- (3) in many cases the equivalent construction with *of* cannot be used, i. e. the genitive is not part of a free group.

Thus we find it used in *a shilling's worth*, but not in *a pennyworth*.

- (4) these genitives can only be used as attributive adjuncts to the following noun.
- (5) the genitive is often a classifying one; thus *my father's book* necessarily means *the book of my father*²), but *a mile's walk* is *a walk of one mile*.

1) In many cases the stem is used: *a shilling book*, *a six-shilling book*. See 912 ff.

2) Compare also *my father's three horses* and *three horses of my father's*; the former is definite (the three h. of my f.), the latter indefinite (three horses of my father). When the post-genitive is used my father *may* have more than three horses.

Consequently, too, the adjunct preceding the genitive does not usually qualify the genitive; thus in *we here reprint with a few additions, our last week's list of books* (Times Lit. 13/8, '14, p. 383/1) the possessive *our* qualifies *list*, and not the genitive. But a specifying genitive of measure is possible: *to-day's paper, an hour's steady work.*

- (6) the genitive expresses none of the relations of the genitive of persons and animals (833).

We assented, and in an hour's time were at the outskirts of the town.

After an hour's steady work the men got the fire under.

Suddenly, without an instant's warning, he was surrounded by a crowd of yelling Indians.

He did not have a single vacation's rest before beginning again. *Athenaeum*, 8/8, 1908.

Shut your eyes, and open them very cautiously in a minute or so's time. Wells, *Country of the Blind*.

It was only a quarter of an hour's walk to Mr. Yule's habitation, a small house in a large garden.

Gissing, *New Grub Street* ch. 2.

We are going to the burial of our last year's sins.

Elizabeth p. 153.

862. Both the genitive of nouns of measure and the genitive of personal nouns and pronouns can take the prop-word *one*. See the chapter on the *Indefinite Pronouns*.

The Genitive as the Subject of the Ing

863. The genitive of animate nouns and of pronouns is used as the subject of an ing, as has been shown in 120 and 121.

It is evident that the two forms are not parallel in this case, the genitive of nouns being much more restricted in this function than the genitive of pronouns.

864. The use of the genitive of nouns as the subject of an ing is evidently restricted to the cases when the ing has plainly the function of a noun. This is very clear when we consider that the genitive is so used when the ing-construction serves as the grammatical subject of the sentence *and precedes the predicate*, not otherwise. See 127.

Character of the Genitive

865. In dealing with the genitive we have shown the almost complete parallelism of the specifying genitive of nouns and the genitive of pronouns. This parallelism is sometimes suggested, too, by the way the possessives are written :

Well, getting rich quick hasn't turned his head as it
has her's. — Collinson, Spoken English p. 74.

The differences between the two kinds of genitives are equally plain: the possessives are not used as absolute genitives, and, what is more important, are not restricted to animate nouns. This last point will be treated in the sections on the possessive pronouns.

866. The genitive of nouns is a function of a form that is also used, in the case of the great majority of nouns, as a plural. There are a small number of nouns that have a special form for each, however, such as *wife's* and *wives*. It is not sufficient, in order to explain this peculiarity, to say that the plurals of these nouns are traditional forms; for the genitive might just as well have retained these traditional forms, such as it has retained in the classifying genitive in *an old wives tale*, where *wives* is equivalent in meaning to *woman's*. And we must also account for the different treatment of group-compounds (*fathers-in-law*, *father-in-law's*) and of groups generally.

867. The facts as to the forms in *-s* used as a genitive compel us to consider the genitive as a derivative rather than an inflectional form.

This interpretation is unavoidable in the construction that we have called 'absolute genitive', in deference to tradition. But it is not a case form at all: the form can be used in any part of the sentence. This does not apply, indeed, to the absolute genitive of nouns expressing relationship, which are used as adjuncts only; but this function is indicated by the preceding preposition, not by the form of the noun.

868. The absolute genitive is often described as a case of omission of the leading noun (*house, villa, church, hotel, shop*, etc.). This is clearly wrong: if, instead of saying *I have been spending a fortnight at my uncle's* we used *I have been spending a fortnight at my uncle's villa*, we should suggest a different thought. In the first sentence it is expressed that the speaker's uncle was his host; in the second sentence it is rather suggested that he lent the house to his nephew during his absence. This leads us to the explanation of the fact that the absolute genitive of nouns expressing relationship is used in prepositional adjuncts only: it is only in this case that the special meaning occurs. If it really expressed place, and nothing more, there would be no reason why it should not be used as a subject or object. Compare the third quotation of 906.

The explanation given above is borne out by the fact that the absolute genitive of nouns expressing relationship is as good as exclusively used in adjuncts with *at* and *to*: these prepositions express position and direction, but the place is represented as connected with the verbal action of the sentence. Such a purely local preposition as *near* (*near my uncle's*) would be out of the question.

869. In names of firms the form is so little understood as a genitive that we may better interpret it as a plural¹). Thus we not only find the spelling without an apostrophe, such as *Harrods*, *Cooks*, but these words often agree with a verbal stem i. e. they are treated as plurals.

The book that brings Harrods to you. Advt.

Do you cash Cooks' travellers' cheques?

Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 50.

Besides being thus engaged, the plaintiff worked at Messrs. Suttons, the carriers. Times 2/8, 15.

Harrods sell everything.

It is hardly necessary to point out that these absolute genitives do not really express a purely local meaning, any more than the genitive of nouns of relationship: *Harrods* is not a place but a more or less public institution. Hence also we can say: *The grocer's will be shut, I'm afraid*; but not *The grocer's has been burnt down*. Nor could we substitute the genitive in: *A curious case occurred some time ago at the house of Dr. G., in a small town in Germany*.

The meaning of the absolute genitive makes it clear why the possessives are not used in this way.

870. The discussion of the meanings of the absolute genitive as well as its form will have made it clear that it is not an inflectional form, but a derivative. If an additional argument were required it might be found in the fact that these 'absolute genitives' are used with an attributive numeral, like any class-noun.

(The Square) contained five public-houses, a bank, a barber's, a confectioner's, three grocers', two chemists', an ironmonger's, a clothier's, and five drapers'.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale, I, ch. 1 § 1.

¹⁾ An intermediate case between the plural and the genitive may occur in the case of proper names of individual persons when the family is referred to (with the classifying article).

Six months later Peter called at the *Hopes'* to say good-bye before he went to Italy. Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 4.

Compare also :

It was a Jewish quarter; notices in Yiddish were in all the little grimy shop windows, in the *bakers* and the sweetshops and the laundries. Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 6 § 2 p. 205.

871. The interpretation of the absolute genitive as a derivative form can help to account for the peculiarities that differentiate the ordinary genitive from the plural. The character of the genitive is also shown by the fact that the pronouns that have a genitive (possessives and *whose*) do not take a similar form as a plural. It is clear that the genitive and the plural are essentially, i. e. syntactically, two unconnected forms in spite of their formal identity. The facts might be briefly formulated as follows:

- (1) a noun with the sibilantic suffix, if used attributively before the leading noun, is a genitive. It never *expresses* number formally, and usually no number is thought of: *John's book*, *the king's eldest son*. When the reference is to a plural this must be indicated by the situation or some special word (*both writers' characters*: 860), but this construction is not really common in spoken English.
- (2) a noun with the sibilantic suffix in an attributive *of*-adjunct to a preceding noun is a genitive when the number is singular or when no number is thought of (both illustrated in 841); it is a plural when the context makes this evident (*in the times of our forefathers*)¹⁾.
- (3) a noun with the sibilantic suffix is a plural in all other cases.

The restriction of the genitive to animate nouns (apart from traditional groups) points to the connection between it and the classification of nouns called gender. It also agrees with the meaning that the genitive of animate nouns expresses

1) The plurals *men*, *women*, *children* do not occur in the post-genitive; instead of saying * *this attempt of the Chinamen's* we can say: *this attempt of the Chinamen*, or *this attempt by (on the part of) the Chinamen*.

(833), for these ideas are most naturally and frequently thought of as the source of action, i. e., speaking grammatically: they are naturally thought of as the subject of a verbal sentence.

Attributive Genitive and Prepositional Adjunct

872. In the same function as the attributive specifying genitive of nouns and pronouns we also find a prepositional adjunct with *of*.

The two constructions are often considered as 'practically' equivalent, and there is no doubt that in many cases the substitution of the one construction for the other would not make a perceptible difference to the meaning or to the character of the sentence. What is of importance to the student of syntax, however, is to know whether the two constructions are really identical, and if not, what is the difference.

As to the first question, it is soon answered: there are plenty of cases when only one of the two constructions can be used; consequently, there must be a difference between them. Before we enter upon a discussion of the meanings expressed by the two constructions, it may be useful to enumerate the cases when the prepositional form is necessary, or usual. This is the case:

(1) with a noun in a plural meaning¹⁾:

the houses of our fathers; this is more usual than *our fathers' houses*. See the examples of attributive nouns with a plural meaning in 860.

(2) When the leading noun denotes an action of which the qualifying word is the object:

He undertook the defence of my father.

In literary English we also find: *He undertook my father's defence*; see 833. Compare:

1) This means a noun that can also express a singular meaning, as a class-noun that takes a suffix in the plural sense. It does not include the isolated forms *men*, *women*, and *children* (761, 828).

I heard not long ago of an eminent lawyer, who had paid a couple of hundred per annum for his son's instruction in the art of fiction.

Meanwhile, Lyttelton's loss, following upon that of George Wyndham, deprives the Opposition of two conspicuous leaders. Nation, 12/7, '13.

In spoken English *my father's defence* would usually be taken to mean that my father defended himself (or somebody else), i. e. as a subjective genitive.

Note that the 'objective' genitive is quite common when the headword denotes the agent: in reality the genitive noun is the subject here (see 833): *my father's accusers, pursuers, etc.*

Wordsworth's readers know how to read him, and what to expect to find. Magnus, Primer.

(3) with longer groups of words.

The longer the group the greater the tendency to use the prepositional equivalent, especially in literary English. An extreme case of a group-genitive is *the man I saw yesterday's father*; this verges on the ridiculous, however, and would certainly never be used in serious writing. Even such group-genitives as *James the Second's reign*, although heard in colloquial English, are avoided in writing:

When the Estates of the Realm declared the throne of James the Second to be vacant, they did not seek to justify the act by any theories of the right of resistance, or by any doctrines of the right of man. It was enough that, three hundred years before, the Estates of the Realm had declared the throne of Richard the Second to be vacant.

Compare also:

While mamma still hesitated what to think and what to do, the street-gate was thrown open, and the father of Violet and Peony appeared... Hawthorne, Snow-Image.

873. The statements of 872 naturally do not apply to

the genitives of personal pronouns. As to 872, 1 the possessive pronouns do distinguish number; as to 872, 2 it has already been shown that they frequently occur in what may be called an objective relation to the leading noun (833 f.), but the prepositional construction is also frequent (*a*). The groups, all of them coordinate, have been illustrated in 832, but the prepositional construction occurs, too, as in the sentences below (*b*).

a. While he recognizes the constitutional difficulties, he provides no help towards a solution of them.

Times Lit. 14/9, 17.

He's nearly recovered now; he's taken to stamp-collecting — the doctor says it'll be the salvation of him if he'll only stick to it.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 89.

But we soon found ourselves out of sight of him¹⁾.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 60.

Bitter cold work; but it was colder for the poor wretches aboard the wreck, if they were alive to feel it. The thought of them made our own sufferings small.

The gracefulness of style which is another distinguishing mark of him.

b. It is true that he is mainly thinking of ill-regulated monasteries, which kings and ealdormen were too wont to endow rather as a comfortable refuge for the old age of themselves and their relatives, than as houses for the service of God. Oman, Conquest p. 321.

Recounting the sufferings of himself and his followers on this occasion.

If you'll trouble yourself to look after the ash of your tobacco, it might be the saving of me and all I have.

874. The prepositional adjunct is invariably used:

(1) with nouns denoting things.

The scene was lit by the long rays of the afternoon sun.

1) Compare *out of his sight*.

The legs of the table are quite grey with dust.

On the non-personal genitive of nouns and of the relative *who* in written English, see the chapter on *Archaic and Literary English*.

(2) with collective nouns and with adjectives and verbals used as nouns.

It is the fault of the public.

To look after the bodily as well as spiritual welfare of the poor.

People has a genitive *people's*, but it differs from the other collectives in not having the article; compare also 962.

Sometimes the conversion of adjectives or participles is so complete that the word is really a noun. Hence we find *the deceased's relatives*. But such a construction is not used in spoken English.

Grace Frazer, the deceased's step-sister, said the deceased had read a pamphlet to her on "How the sick should be healed." Daily News, 21/10 1905.

(3) when the noun is qualified by an adjunct that cannot precede the noun, or by a clause.

We regret to announce the death of Mr. A. B., aged 52.

This is the overcoat of the boy who came to see you last night.

The two following quotations seem to show that it is the adjunct (clause) that causes the prepositional construction.

The wife of Charles, who now was thirty-two, was pretty in a pale way.

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 10
(opening sentence) p. 55.

Charles's wife that night scarcely exchanged words with Conrad Bryne. ib. ch. 11 (opening sentence) p. 63.

But compare this quotation.

"Oh, he is dead! Poor Frank is dead! They have found his body, and the boy's that was with him."

Olive Schreiner, Undine ch. 5 p. 61.

875. The statements in the preceding sections would make it possible to formulate some special reasons for choosing the prepositional construction. But they would not enable us to find out the fundamental difference between the two forms; this can best be done by comparing the effect of each when there are no formal reasons for preferring one to the other. We must turn, consequently, to the use of the prepositional group when the noun is a name of a person or a proper name, or when the pronoun refers to a person. An example with a pronoun may be convenient as a starting-point.

Arminius Wingrove was the name of him.

Snaith, Principal Girl, p. 44.

It is clear, even apart from the context, that *the name of him* is a very different thing from *his name*: the prepositional construction plainly expresses the disdain felt for the person referred to. Why should it do that, and not *his name*? Because *his name* suggests a person as an active centre (see the definition of the genitive in 833), whereas *the name of him* suggests something acted upon, passive. The same cause explains the following sentence.

The Kindergarten . . . whither he followed Miss Marrow,
wondering at the size and ugliness of her.

Sinister Street p. 35.

Molière need not be ashamed of his strongest English advocate, though the name of him be John Dennis.

Times Lit. 12/1, 1922.

876. Another, but closely connected, cause may be that *of* really serves to make the *preceding* noun into an adjunct (see the sections on *of* in *Prepositions*). This would explain such a case as the last sentence of 875, and also the following.

He was darning a stocking, which was red like the rest of him. Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 8.

But presently a side of him was revealed in sentiments that gave her little joy. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 5.

It was the amateur side of him which made John give up his stage career. Times Lit. 23/12, 15.

These two shapes of her crossed and were confused and again were parted. Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 3 p. 257.

Well, I like the look of you. More blood and bones than most of the rotten puppies that come into this office. ib. II ch. 6 § 3 p. 210.

'I think it probable,' I replied, 'from the look of you. But go on.'

Rose Macaulay, Potterism II ch. 3 § 4 p. 91.

I knew what it was to be tossed in a blanket by him and the like of him. Hope, Holiday Stories.

877. No alternative is possible when the noun has already an *of*- adjunct.

The confidence that he had had in Stephen's reception of him suddenly deserted him¹⁾.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 81.

878. In many cases the prepositional construction has the character of a standing group so that the alternative construction with the possessive is out of the question.

Why Mr. Wrench should neglect her children, she could not for the life of her understand.

Eliot, Middlemarch.

Mr. V. showed his character on the surface of him freely to all men. W. Collins, No Name.

... a creature that is convinced that it has been enjoying itself, and that convinces you as well, although you can't for the life of you understand the details.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 20 p. 190.

879. The fundamental reason why the possessive is not

1) Compare *his reception by Stephen*.

used in the sentences quoted seems to be that the person referred to is not thought of as the subject of a verbal sentence. This must explain the *side of him* in the following sentence.

He undid the gate and pitched into the yard, plunging into great pools of water and seeing on every side of him the uncertain shapes of the barns and sheds...

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 82.

It is in accordance with this that we find the article used in this sentence, and not the possessive pronoun:

I suppose every fellow has *the* wild side and *the* sober side, and I've had such a rum life...

ib. III ch 3 § 2 p. 266.

880. In some cases another cause might have to be assumed for the use of the prepositional construction. Sapir, *Language* p. 176 states: "It is significant that *theirs* is hardly ever used in reference to inanimate nouns, that there is some reluctance to so use *their*, and that *its* also is beginning to give way to *of it*. *The appearance of it* or *the looks of it* is more in the current of the language than *its appearance*."

This theory might account, or help to account, for the prepositional construction in the following sentences.

I must ask you carefully to observe the rhythm of them.
Murray in Essays III, 17.

He struck a match, and by the light of it bolted for the door.
Galsworthy, Caravan I p. 5 f.

Richard Calmady rode homeward through the woods, and the aspect of them was very lovely.

Malet, Calmady III ch. 2 p. 77/1.

A mile away, the clock of Eckington church tolled out the hour of six and, with the last stroke of it, from the mill-house, came the sound of an opening window.

Temple Thurston, Antagonists I ch. 1 p. 11.

881. Sapir's theory is acceptable in that it is in accord-

ance with the facts of living English syntax, which restricts the genitive of nouns to animate nouns. There seems to be a tendency, too, in living English, to restrict the genitive still more narrowly, and to use it of personal nouns only. For the genitive of animal names is chiefly found in the traditional groups, as a classifying adjunct¹⁾; it is comparatively infrequent as a specifying genitive.

But Sapir's theory, however well-founded, can only be a secondary cause of the employment of the prepositional construction in the cases that have been quoted, for we find it as well when the reference is to animate nouns, whether denoting persons or animals, as in the following sentences.

They were walking slowly; and though it was too dark for much discovery of character from aspect, the gait of them showed that they were workers on the heath.

Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 139.

I never imagined such fishes before. They had lines of fire along the sides of them. Wells, Country p. 95.

882. The parallelism that has been shown to exist between the attributive genitive and the possessives must lead us to expect a similar, if not the same, parallelism between the prepositional constructions. The following quotation seems to prove this parallelism.

The doubtful legitimacy of such rough coercion did not disturb the mind of Venn.

Hardy, Return of the Native IV ch. 5.

883. The parallelism between the prepositional construction with a noun and a personal pronoun (*the like of him, his like*) should not prevent us from seeing a difference. The pronouns in these constructions, whether preceding the noun or following it, are generally weak-stressed, i. e. they are

1) With *nest, hoof, head, tail* as leading nouns, i. e. permanent attributes.

subordinate elements of the group. This subordination is less evident in the case of the attributive genitive preceding its leading noun, a group that has even stress; but there is some subordination here, too. This explains why the genitive is so frequent when the person is mentioned for the second time. But in the prepositional construction the noun, whether in the genitive (*a novel of my father's*) or in the stem-form (*a novel of my father*), retains its independence. This seems to be the reason why the prepositional construction is used in the following sentences.

As it should do, the death of Nelson inspires Mr. Hardy; and in the part which relates thereto we find his versification at its best.

Edinb. Rev. April 1908, p. 433.

Such was the massive protest of Bursley against what Bursley regarded as a callous injustice. The execution of Daniel Povey had most genuinely excited the indignation of the town¹⁾. That execution was not only an injustice; it was an insult, a humiliating snub.

Bennett, Old W. T. II ch. 5 § 5 p. 238.

The natural query of an observer would have been, Why should such a promising being as this have hidden his prepossessing exterior by adopting that singular occupation?

Hardy, Native I ch. 2 p. 10 f.

884. There may be special reasons for taking the prepositional construction in a given case. Thus, in the following sentence, the genitive is used, with one exception; but it is not a matter of chance that all these genitives are followed by a leading noun-group containing a prepositional noun, whereas the prepositional construction does not show such a leading noun.

¹⁾ *Daniel Povey's execution* would hardly be correct; it would, or might, suggest a contrast to *Daniel Povey's life*, etc.; apart from the consequent subordination of the idea *Daniel Povey*.

The student's habit of study (1), the politician's habit of propaganda (2), the trained perception of a mountaineer, the artist's eye for atmosphere (3), and any one's eye for distance, shape, and solidity (4), are in a great measure unnoticed and unreflected upon, yet mentally operative and of a mental order. Laird, Our Minds p. 17.

It hardly needs pointing out that the prepositional construction in *the habit of study of the student*, as in case 2, and especially in cases 3 and 4, would be objectionable; on the other hand, *a mountaineer's trained perception* would be cumbersome, and would hardly give sufficient weight to *mountaineer*.

885. It seems unnecessary to explain in detail the causes of the use of the prepositional construction in all the cases enumerated in 872 and 874. The interpretation of the genitive as the personal subject of a verbal sentence accounts for most of them; the statement of 872, 1 is the result of the fact that the attributive noun does not express number in living English, as will be discussed more fully in the sections on the *Attributive Noun* (900 ff.)

Post-Genitive and Prepositional Adjunct

886. We often find an adjunct with *of* in the same, or almost the same, function as a post-genitive (*a*). This construction is necessary when the noun has no genitive, as in the last or the two last of the following quotations (*b*).

a. As a young man, fresh from the University, Swift became private secretary to Sir William Temple, a retired statesman and a friend of William III.

Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 101.

In 1764 Goldsmith's poem *The Traveller* came out and made him famous. He became a close friend of Dr. Johnson and helped him to found the celebrated Literary Club.

ib. p. 112.

Another remark of Coleridge is rather curious to read at the present day. G. Murray in Essays III, p. 11.

It was this remark of Dr. Thorpe that first suggested to me his view that we afterwards conversed so much about. de Morgan, Vance, ch. 18 p. 178.

At these words of Mr. Povey her cheeks seemed to fill out like plump apples.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 2 § 1.

(They) stand out in exquisite relief from the deep shadows and wayward lines of others which call to mind some of the portraits of Rembrandt.

Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 15 p. 242.

b. Morier himself — we judge from the correspondence, not from any praise of Mrs. Wemyss — was singularly fitted for a more conspicuous position than that which he actually held.

Daily News.

With uplifted finger he was going on to impress them with another lesson: that in the battles which would be sure to await them, they must be warned by this error of their fathers never to be over-hasty or over-confident.

Allen, Doctor.

Some examples with personal pronouns have been given in 876 (the second, third, and fourth sentences).

887. A comparison of these quotations with those in 841 will show that there is often no difference in meaning between the two constructions.

The objective post-genitive is extremely rare; the examples in 847 should rather be interpreted as subjective genitives (872, 2). The post-genitive would often be objectionable; if introduced in the following quotation it would cause unnecessary ambiguity.

It is no criticism of Mr. Massey to say that, even for those who have a knowledge of the ground and the force, it is not easy to read all his account intelligently.

Times Lit. 16/9, '20.

Compare the following quotation.

This kinematographic world is, of course, no peculiar discovery of Gyp's.

888. Sometimes there seems to be a real difference between the two constructions, so that a writer chooses one construction in one case, the other construction in the next.

1. Miss Enefer explained to Winnie that such was the power of control she now had over her *fiancé*, owing to the imminent approach of marriage, that the lifting of a little finger would send him, if a friend of Miss Enefer so desired, to the farthest corners of the earth.

Pett Ridge, Garland, ch. XII p. 201.

2. . . . when an old schoolfellow of Miss Enefer's asked permission to come up to be introduced. ib.

It would seem that the noun stem *Enefer* is used in the first sentence because, the case being entirely hypothetical, the genitive would make it too definite. For the post-genitive often, though not necessarily, suggests that there are more specimens of the thing or person expressed by the leading noun. For this reason the post-genitive is quite natural in the second sentence: Miss Enefer necessarily had more than one schoolfellow, and the word schoolfellow naturally calls up the idea of a number of fellow-pupils.

889. Sometimes the post-genitive seems to be purposely avoided because it might suggest numbers, as in the first two quotations of 886 *a*, and perhaps the others; also in the following.

Michael was anxious to meet this man who had evidently been a very intimate friend of his father.

Sinister Street p. 557.

It should be understood, however, that the post-genitive does not necessarily suggest numbers. This is shown by some of the examples quoted in 841, and also by the following. See 1116.

Hence the long popularity of that Magdalen of Titian's who, as Ruskin said, looks as if she hoped to get to heaven by dint of her personal charms.

Times Lit. 2/11, 22.

No one knew better than Charles alike the patient's dominance and that secretive nature of his which from the first . . . had made a confidant of Jule.

Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 6 p. 34.

THE NOUN STEM

890. Just as in the case of the verb, we have first treated the characterized forms of the noun. We must now deal with the uses of the unchanged noun stem, and finally compare the two forms.

891. The stem of class-nouns is generally called the singular. The term may be used as long as it is understood that it chiefly refers to the concord with the verb when the noun is the grammatical subject; for the term singular does not express the meaning of the noun itself. The noun stem is used to express an individual specimen (*a*); it may also express the idea in a general sense (*b*) or a specimen as representative of its class (*c*). It may also denote a plural number, both in contrasts or enumerations (*d*) and in attributive use (*e*). A single example of each must suffice here, because the meaning often depends upon the presence or absence of adjuncts, especially of the articles, and will be dealt with in the sections on these. Compare 802 f. on the plural class-nouns.

- a.* Just help me move *the piano*.
- b.* What is *a novel*?
- c.* *The pen* is mightier than *the sword*.

The Lord Mayor's Show brings out *the suburbanite*
in full force. Westm. Gazette.

d. Within (i. e. within the church) it was cool and
dark; it was furnished sparingly with seat and screen, and
held monuments of old knights and ladies.

Benson, Thread of Gold, p. 31.

e. A three-volume novel.

892. The attributive noun stem can be used both as a plain adjunct preceding the leading noun and as an adjunct with *of* after it. The latter construction has been treated in 872 ff., so that we need only compare it here with the plain adjunct as illustrated by the following sentences.

The *wedding subject*¹⁾ was no further dwelt upon.
Hardy, Native I ch. 4 p. 41.

How snug and friendly his little *attic bedroom* was
with its funny diamond-paned window under the shelving
roof. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 2 p. 17.

The *invasion period* may perhaps have fallen a little
later. Oman, Conquest p. 10.

... the plague of the *Viking invasions* ... ib. p. 419.

The difference between the plain and the prepositional stem is that the former joins the words in a closer group, suggesting something permanent. But it would be possible in the sentences quoted to substitute *the subject of the wedding*, *the period of the invasions*, *the invasions of the Vikings*, and *the bedroom in the attic* without materially altering the sense.

The Noun Stem and the Inflected Noun

Noun Stem and Plural **893.** After dealing with the uses of the inflected noun and the unchanged noun stem it seems advisable to compare the two, showing the uses they have in common, and the cases in which

1) i. e. the subject of the wedding.

they differ. The inflected noun will be dealt with according as it may be looked upon as a plural, and as a genitive.

894. The plural and the noun stem can be used in the same functions in the sentence (apart from the attributive noun preceding its headword).

They can be used: as the subject (*a*), the predicate (*b*), the object (*c*), the adverbial (*d*), attributive (*e*), and predicative (*f*), adjunct of a sentence (with a preposition or not), and as the form of address (*g*).

a. My father (My parents) will come home to-morrow.

b. He is a very good fellow.

They are both clever boys.

c. I saw a boy who was running away.

d. He ran a great distance (several yards).

We spoke of a great difficulty (of many difficulties).

A gentleman who lived Cricklewood way.

Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 5.

Witness added that when he heard that the plaintiff had asked his daughter to marry him, he advised her to take him *a short walk* and drop him gently.

Daily News, 1913.

Some way down the Broad Walk I perceived that I was tired and that my feet were heavy.

Wells, Country of the Blind p. 163.

e. This is a thing of no importance.

But I will not weary you with more of my experiences that day and the next.

Wells, Country of the Blind p. 164.

f. I consider it a great mistake to ask him for advice.

g. Come here, my pet (my pets).

895. Both the noun stem and the plural can be used for the indirect and for the direct object (*a*). If the usual order (indirect object before direct) is deviated from, the indirect object is replaced by a prepositional adjunct with

to, occasionally *for*¹⁾; also when the two are separated (*b*).

a. I gave my brother the money.

She has bought her mother a dress for the money.

Will you cash me this cheque?

b. I gave the money to my brother, not to John.

Will you cash this cheque for me?

The two forms as the subject of a non-predicative verb in the object with participle, with ing, and with stem constructions, have been fully dealt with in the first volume.

896. The plural and the noun stem as a nominal predicate in sentences expressing the identity of subject and predicate do not require any comment here. But it may be useful to collect here some examples showing that in nominal sentences expressing a quality the two forms have the function of an adjective rather than of a noun. This is very clear when the words are used as a predicative (*a*) or semi-predicative (*b*) adjunct expressing such properties of an object as size, colour, age, price, or the professions of persons.

a. The plank is not the right width.

The towers were exactly the same height.

At these times the sea was often a milky opal.

Peard, Madame's Grand-daughter p. 126.

It lay to the left of this bridge that was the colour
of stale blood. Sinister Street p. 855.

They generally paint their bodies all kinds of bright
colours. Sweet, Elementarbuch p. 68.

Her father, Old Colonel Moray, was just that sort.
Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 2.

1) The distinction between indirect objects and adjuncts of benefit will be treated in the chapter on the *Simple Sentence* in vol. 3.

What price is that article?

What (= what price) are potatoes to-day?

What age is she? She might be any age between twenty and forty.

What trade is he?

What part of speech are these words?

b. Nowhere could I discern a cloud the size of a man's hand. Gissing, Ryecroft p. 88.

She had hands the colour of a pickling cabbage.

Behind the altar painted on the plaster of the wall was the rood or crucifix the size of life.

There's a superstition in this country that people are free. Ever since I was a girl your age I've known that they are not. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 37.

Why, since he had accepted his fate, should he pretend to judge the conduct of people his superiors in rank?

Meredith, Harrington ch. 13 p. 124.

"Very likely he has a daughter my age", said she to herself. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 2 p. 11.

897. The subordination of the noun stem when used attributively before its leading noun also causes it frequently to resemble or to become an adjective (*a*). When each noun in such a group retains its independence we speak of appositions (*b*). In appositions plural nouns can be used.

a. Two corner houses.

b. The planet Neptune. The River Danube. Cape Finisterre. Lake Erie. Mount Etna.

King Edward. The Emperor Charles V. Cardinal Newman.

The gasfitter Charles. Farmer Blaize. Constable Dempsey.

Lylly's dramas as well as his novel *Euphues* are written in a sort of ornamental prose. Delmer, Eng. Lit. 73.

Nor is the title the Age of Anne more appropriate.
Athenaeum, 30/11, 12.

Attributive numerals naturally tend to assume the character of adjectives.

Six dozen pencils.

Pestilence swept off half his men.

There is ample shipping in German ports for the embarkation of a quarter of a million men.

Times W. 16/10, 1914.

The myriad beautiful details. Athen. 38/3, 14.

The half dozen or so lives and reminiscences.

Mair, Eng. Lit. p. 140.

So you're playing at play-acting, young man? That's what nine-tenths the world is for ever doing in its daily life.

G. Cannan, Round the Corner.

On the first three-quarter page of these examples I find the following pronunciations. Robert Bridges, Essays I.

898. The attributive use of *plenty* (without *of*) is called dialectal by the editor of the New English Dictionary. It is also used predicatively.

Although there are plenty other ideals I should prefer.
Stevenson.

Doubtless there are plenty other sources where the same material may be found.

Athenaeum, 5/11, 1910, p. 563/2.

In the morning before office hours, at noon when business was plenty, and time scarce ...

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll ed. Schutt p. 22.

Noun Stem and

Genitive

899. The noun stem and the genitive share two functions only: as the subject of a non-predicative verb (in the object with participle, etc.) and as the attributive adjunct to the following noun. The first use has been fully discussed in the first volume, so that we need only consider the attributive stem and genitive here.

900. The comparison of the plain stem of the noun and the attributive genitive can be best prepared by stating as shortly as possible the facts of their use, with typical examples. An important point in the comparison will prove to be the number denoted by the attributive noun. For this reason the arrangement of the facts will be partly based on this.

A. Attributive Noun not denoting number, or denoting a singular.

- (1) noun-stem: *a silver ring, a boy-hunter, a lady-teacher, Socrates' teaching.*
- (2) noun with a suffix: *my brother's pen, the robin's nest, a mile's distance.*

B. Attributive Noun denoting a plural idea.

- (1) noun-stem: *the Viking companions of Ingwar* (Oman, *Conquest* p. 526), *the plague of the Viking invasions* (ib. p. 419), *the lowland marshes, a peasant family, a five-pound note.*
- (2) noun with a suffix: *a lovers' quarrel, the Woodwards' lawn.*

901. Little comment is needed on the cases under A: the function of the genitive has been fully discussed in 833 ff. But we sometimes find the unchanged stem of nouns denoting persons or animals in a function that is apparently identical with the genitive, as in the following sentences.

He thought his detective brain as good as the criminal's.
Chesterton, *Innocence of Father Brown* p. 7.

That evening Mr. Utterson came home to his bachelor house in sombre spirits. Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 15.

But the chairman was through the green baize door.
At his tortoise gait he traversed the inner office.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 47.

Bob Pillin remained with his back to the fire and his puppy round eyes fixed on the air that her figure had last occupied. ib. p. 63.

In all these quotations the noun stem is used as a classifying, not as a defining or specifying adjunct. And it has been pointed out that the use of the genitive in specifying adjuncts is the living use, whereas the classifying genitive is very frequently traditional.

902. We have a different case in the following sentences.

When giving an account of the Jamaica Bill during the Melbourne administration, . . .

Justin McCarthy, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 19.

Perhaps if the Melbourne Ministry had been stronger . . .
ib. p. 20.

It is evident that the substitution of *Lord Melbourne's* for the stem would alter the spirit of the group: it would give a personal colouring to the phrase¹⁾, and this is what the use of the noun stem is intended to prevent. This explains, too, why the use of the genitive entails the use of the title at the same time.

903. With regard to the constructions under B there seem to be two questions that require answering:

- (1) What is the function of the suffix in these groups:
Is it a plural or a genitive suffix?
- (2) When is the suffix used here?

904. The natural answer to the first question might seem to be that the suffix denotes the plural meaning of the noun, and this answer has, in fact, been often given. But is it correct? If it is, we require an answer to the other question: why do not the nouns in B 1 take the plural suffix then? The best plan will be first to tackle the use of the attributive noun stem in a plural meaning.

905. The examples in B 1, which show the existence of groups with an unchanged attributive noun in an un-

1) For the cause of this, see 834.

doubtedly plural meaning, could easily be multiplied; see the chapter on Word-formation in volume 3. It is shown there that the unchanged form is the normal one, and not an exception; it is the normal form, too, when the noun is preceded by numerals, as in the following cases.

Things like this should be ample warning that a two million pound battleship may be crippled by an aeroplane costing £ 450.

A dozen twopenny-halfpenny stamps.

The use of the unchanged stem after numerals is even found when the noun is only apparently attributive, as in the following cases, which represent perfectly natural colloquial English, although schoolmasters who are not handicapped by knowledge of the subjects they teach may succeed in driving it out of Standard English.

Its rooms were eight feet high and its doors five foot seven. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. I § 2 p. 7.

"And was she tall enough?" "Only five foot five." Galsworthy, Freelands, ch. 5.

"She's six foot two if she's an inch, and her hands and feet —" Mrs. Belgrave shuddered with a gratified glance at her own slim fingers. Hume, Red Money, p. 17.

He was at least six foot four in height.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 7 p. 214.

906. In the face of the facts just adduced it would be difficult to account for the plural form of attributive nouns in the cases referred to in B 2. And it is evident that the form with the sibilantic suffix may be interpreted as a genitive. Can the genitive form be accounted for? There seems no difficulty in that, as will be shown now.

The genitive of personal nouns with a plural meaning has been illustrated in 860. It has been explained that this construction is found in all styles of written English, in other

words that it is not really common in spoken English. It may be added here, however, that it sometimes occurs when the context makes the plural meaning quite certain, and the construction is not to be called artificial in any way. This interpretation seems to apply to the following cases.

When Constance came to bed, half an hour later, Sophia was already in bed. The room was fairly spacious. It had been the girls' retreat and fortress since their earliest years. Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 2 § 3 p. 43.

The horn of the omnibus sounded at the end of Rectory Lane; and the fat guard was marching through the snow with the girls' luggage.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 99.

Pauline scarcely felt that she was living in the Strettons' house. ib. p. 101.

What's the matter? You must needs choose your grandparents' golden wedding to go to Sandown.

Bennett, Milestones III, in Brit. Pl. p. 59.

For the first time he had been conscious of the expressionless stolidity of his brothers' faces as they sat at the kitchen table. Freeman, Joseph ch. 8 p. 69.

907. Two things are clearly shown by the examples quoted: (1) that the sentences contain what must be called genitives; (2) that the genitive nouns refer to more than one person. The inevitable conclusion seems to be that the attributive genitive does not distinguish number any more than the attributive noun stem, a conclusion that may be all the more acceptable because it agrees with what might be expected theoretically. The result of our considerations is, therefore, that the attributive noun in living English does not express number by its form. This conclusion accounts for the seemingly absurd fact that groups like *the prince of Wales*, *my father-in-law* can take a genitive suffix, whereas the plurals *the princes of Wales*, *our fathers-in-law* cannot (see 829).

Some apparent exceptions will be discussed in the third volume.

908. We have now prepared the way towards answering the second question of 903: when the genitive is used, when the stem. Two sentences may be quoted by way of introduction.

In summer he would row up in his own wherry and land himself and carpet-bag direct on the *Woodwards' lawn*¹⁾. Trollope, Three Clerks, p. 25.

None of the *Woodward circle* were content thus to lose their friend. ib. p. 170.

There can be no doubt as to the number denoted by the attributive proper name here: the first group means *the lawn of the Woodwards*, the second *the circle of the Woodwards*. The reason for the formal difference is plain: in the first group the noun is the subject of a verbal sentence: *the Woodwards had a lawn*, whereas in the second it is the subject of a nominal sentence: *the Woodwards were a circle*.

The following cases are of the same type.

It was arranged that Mr. Slope should not return in the Stanhope's²⁾ carriage to Barchester.

Trollope, Barchester ch. 41 p. 364.

To look at the palings before the Yeobrights' house had the dignity of a necessary performance.

Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 132.

The Yeobrights' premises at Blooms-End.

ib. II ch. 3 p. 143.

He had no further connection with the interests of the Yeobright family. ib. IV ch. 4 p. 332.

She was at present a total stranger to the Yeobright family. ib. II ch. 6 p. 178.

It was a county ball, and he knew hardly anyone there, except the members of the Fitzsimmons's house-party. E. M. Delafield, What is Love? (T.) p. 25.

He was taken away by the Fitzsimmons party...

ib. p. 32.

1) Mrs. Woodward and her daughters.

2) The uncertainty shown by the difference in spelling between *Woodwards'* and *Stanhope's*, though of no grammatical importance, may be noted as the inevitable result of the attempt to introduce distinctions that do not exist.

909. There is another way to show that the form in *-s* is a genitive: if an adjective is prefixed to the genitive it qualifies the genitive noun, and not the leading noun of the group (see 841), whereas such an adjective may qualify the leading noun in other than genitive groups. Now, if we said *the pleasant Woodwards' lawn* the adjective would refer to the Woodwards, but in *the pleasant Woodward circle* it would qualify the whole group, and *circle* in the first place. Compare also *the pleasant Cartew cook* (*Sinister Street*).

910. In other cases the difference between the form in *-s* and the stem seems to be that of a specifying and a classifying adjunct. This may account for the following forms.

I wish that some one would write about Oxford as Anthony Trollope wrote about Barchester. Not so much from the *undergraduate* as from the *don's wife's point of view*. Barbara p. 22.

... far likelier is it ... that the *Brontë genius* will come to be underrated.

Flora Masson, *The Brontës*, p. 9.
Brontë novels, a Brontë story. ib. p. 10.

Many of the literary interests of the *Plantagenet times* are found already among the Anglo-Saxons.

Ker, Eng. Lit. p. 56.

There is nothing in the *Plantagenet reigns* like *Beowulf* or the Maldon poem. ib. p. 57.

The pride of being ladies had something to do with it: the *Brooke* connections, though not exactly aristocratic, were unquestionably "good". Eliot, *Middlemarch* ch. 1.

The younger *Giles* children were pupils at the school.
Ward, Dickens p. 3.

In the *Trenor* set (i. e. of Mr. and Mrs. T.).
Wharton, *House of Mirth* p. 24.

The *Van Osburgh* husbands (i. e. men married to the Miss Van Osburghs). ib. p. 174.

Contrast between the *Quinney* practices and the *Honey-bun* precepts. Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 156.

He entered keenly into the undergraduate life of the College. Athenaeum, 24/10, '14.

The acting of classical plays in schools and colleges was a main element in the *Humanist* theory of education.
Times Lit. 7/1, '15.

He turned to the *Fitzsimmons* girl.

Delafield, p. 34 (see 908).

When Michael argued against it in his solemn way he found himself taking the other side from a mere *under-graduate* pleasure in argument.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 148.

What a place it must have been, that virgin woodland wilderness of all England, ever encroached on by innumerable peasant clearings, . . .

Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 87.

... the conditions of *pioneer* life in the shires of Saxon England ... ib. p. 88.

The classifying character of the attributive noun stem is sometimes quite evident. When the Times (Lit. S. 7/10, 20) heads a review of collections of letters by German soldiers *German Soldier Letters*, it certainly implies that such letters form a class by themselves; and the contents of the article bear this out, for it is chiefly a comparison with similar English collections.

The classifying sense may lead to a depreciatory use with reference to individuals; thus *the Smith girl* is hardly likely to be appreciated by the person referred to; and *the Smith dog* seems to class the dog and his owners in one group.

911. In the less usual groups writers probably hesitate sometimes. This uncertainty may account for the different forms in the following quotations.

All students of the drama knew that I had long been collecting materials, not only on the Blackfriars but particularly on the various *children* companies.

Wallace, Evolution p. IX.

While working in 1902-7 on the history of various children's companies. ib. p. 2.

The struggle between the children's companies and the men's companies. Athenaeum, 2/11, 12.

912. It finally remains to deal with the nouns of measure that are used attributively in both forms. As the form in *-s* does not here express the meaning of the genitive of personal nouns, the difference between the two constructions is only that between a specifying and a classifying adjunct. It is true that the genitive of nouns of measure can be a classifying adjunct, but this meaning is more definitely expressed by the noun stem, because the noun stem does not at the same time occur as a specifying adjunct. Thus, the classifying character of the stem *mile* seems undoubted in the following sentence.

Are you game for a six-mile trudge, Watson?
Conan Doyle.

The same explanation seems to suffice for the quotations that follow here.

Then came a general lighting of pipes and cigars, and off we started for another walk through lanes and wood to Cobham, a good six-mile business.

Sir W. Hardman, quoted Jerrold, Meredith p. 11.

He reached home damp and weary enough after his ten-mile walk. Hardy, Return of the Native III ch. 6.

I was chiefly busy that day negotiating a ninety-nine year building lease. Wells, Country of the Blind p. 409.

The smile of Felix had never been more whimsically employed than during that ten-day visit.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 16.

But even on this 50 mile stretch of front the perils and incessant hostility of winter have taken their toll of life and limb. Times W. 16/3, '17.

Compare also:

The only important events which are recorded con-

cerning the later period of Augustine's seven-year archiepiscopate are his unfortunate conferences with the Celtic bishops.
Oman, Conquest p. 265.

He is recorded as a zealous teacher, and a consecrator of many churches, during his sixteen-years' episcopate.
ib. p. 279.

... probably while Ecgfrith was engaged in his four-year Mercian war.
ib. p. 307.

"A one mile's race" is an incorrect example of the "Saxon" genitive. Times Lit. 5/2, 1929 p. 1033/2.
(in a review of an English grammar for Italians).

It will be a three miles' journey if you want to call upon them.

So we went on, looking into everything, laughing, wondering every step of our five mile journey.
Sweet, Spoken English p. 54.

For the same reason Lord Leverhulme gave to his book the title of *The Six-Hour Day and other Industrial Questions*.

But we have a very different case in the apparently similar sentences:

(She) is serving a life sentence for the murder of her thirteen months old baby girl.

Lloyd's Sunday News 25/6, 22.
Rescuing a three-year-old baby girl. ib. ib.

The adjuncts of time in these two sentences qualify *old*, not the noun. See footnote to 914.

913. Nouns with a singular meaning almost invariably take the form of the genitive, if they denote time or the distance to be covered by a traveller.

an hour's journey. To-Day's Standard.
a single vacation's rest, etc. Last Year's Who's Who.

But in the following case the genitive would be unidiomatic.

Between Bullecourt and Quéant, a little west of the Cambrai battlefield, the enemy attacked strongly yesterday on a mile front. Times W. 21/12, 17.

914. In the following sentences the genitive is used. The distinction of a specifying and a classifying genitive would often be perfectly arbitrary, and will not be attempted. The student will not fail to observe the hopeless spelling muddle that the introduction of an imaginary 'genitive plural' to be distinguished from an equally imaginary 'genitive singular' produces.

Those little five-minutes visits to his mother's room.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 79.

... after two hours' ride over rough country.

Rider Haggard, Witch's Head ch. 12 (T.) II p. 154.

It's a seven hours' journey. Sidgwick, Severins, p. 96.

It was worth four years' salary. Wells, Country p. 78.

With three days' provisions and a canvas tent.

ib. p. 74.

Captain Jarvie, a nine months' soldier of the heavy dragoon type¹⁾. Fergus Hume in Pears' Annual 1916.

"It may become my duty to..." "Evict me?"

... "No, no, but I may have to threaten you to give you several months' notice." Punch, April '16.

Torriano Avenue (which, five minutes' sharp walk from Masters's, took a winding course...)

Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 8.

It's nearly two hours' walk. Garvice, Staunch.

Twenty-five pounds' weight of biltong.

Haggard, Salomon.

A shawl of about thirty shillings' value.

Gaskell, Cranford.

There was well over a two-thirds majority. Times W.

1) No apostrophe is called for when the addition of *old* changes the character of the adjunct:

The eleven-weeks-old son of an engineer's fitter. Daily Mail 14/1, 22.

A 9 years-old boy accidentally shot his brother dead. ib.

Such a spelling as *his seven-years' dead partner* (Christmas Carol st. I) must be looked upon as a mistake. See also 912.

The type of 'keenness' does not always make its possessor equal to the strain of two or three hours concentration in simultaneously reading and criticising a difficult book. Blackwood's Magaz. Aug. 1912, p. 202.

After a short experience in the House, then an eighteen months spell out of it, Brindle had now been returned by a Midland borough. Patterson, Compton p. 147.

The three times regulation in regard to accidents rarely failed in Winnie's experience.

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland ch. III p. 51.

Will the six months recruits, who are at present so smart...gradually sink back, as the years recede, into the same old type whom we knew in the past?

Academy 16/7, 1910.

He tells me querulously of a two hundred miles tramp since early spring, of search for work.

Fairless, Roadmender p. 16.

By a swift 30 miles night march. Times W. 19/1, '17.

At the end of a brilliant 100 miles march up the Tigris. ib. 16/3, '17.

In their 110 miles' retreat from Kut. ib. ib.

The three miles sea zone. ib. 1917.

Of the same character are the following cases of a traditional genitive.

If thirty-five ships' crews could hold their own against the king even for a day, what was to be expected when fleets of several hundred galleys should appear?

Oman, Conquest p. 417 f.

At one's wits' end (also: at one's wit's end).

915. We have seen that the genitives of names of measures not denoting *time* or *distance*, are followed by a head-word related in meaning: *a pound's weight*. When the head-word is not so related plural nouns of measure are always written without the apostrophe.

Mr. Kipling began his career with paper-covered shilling books, but was soon persuaded by his publishers to

adopt the six shillings form for fiction, and five shillings for verse, from which he has rarely descended.

Lit. World 1/8, 1912.

It does not make two straws difference.

Shaw, Back to Methusaleh, IX.

An important argument in favour of the interpretation of the suffixed forms as genitives must still be added: attributive nouns with a plural meaning take the suffix only in cases when the noun would also take it in a singular meaning. The conclusion that the suffix is in both cases a genitive ending seems irresistible.

GENDER OF NOUNS

916. English gender may be looked upon as a very simple subject; it may also be called a complicated one. It is a simple subject to the dogmatic grammarian whose duty is accomplished when he has supplied the rules that enable the student to regulate his conduct in the use of English as a foreign language. It is complicated when we wish to describe the actual state of things in English, even if we restrict ourselves to one form: received Standard English; still more when we attempt to understand what is behind the facts.

Nouns in English are classed as *animate* or *inanimate*. Animate nouns agree with the pronouns *he*, *his*, *him*, in which case they are called *masculine*; or they agree with the pronouns *she*, *her*, *hers*, in which case they are distinguished as *feminine*. Both groups agree with the relative (not the interrogative) *who*; see 1476.

It should be clearly understood that masculine is not identical with male in natural sex; indeed, the masculine may be considered the usual animate gender, both for names of male beings and others that have nothing to do

with sex. The feminine gender is far rarer, but must also be distinguished from the idea of female sex.

The inanimate nouns agree with the pronouns *it* and *its*, and the relative *which*.

917. The division of nouns into an animate and an inanimate class depends upon the character of the noun in the mind of the speaker at the given moment; the classification is not a permanent one.

We can best deal with the grammatical facts by grouping nouns according as they denote:

- (1) persons; (2) animals; (3) plants; (4) artificial objects; (5) natural objects, material and abstract ideas.

Of these classes the first four may be animate or inanimate; the last are always inanimate in spoken English.

It may be observed here that the classification of nouns according to gender is not identical with that according to which the genitive is used: nouns of the third and fourth classes, though animate, are never used in the genitive, apart from literary English.

918. In many other Indo-Germanic languages gender is not exclusively, or even primarily, a classification according to the corresponding referring pronouns, but according to the form of the attributive words. This attributive gender is purely traditional in most cases. Frequently it occurs in these languages that the attributive gender conflicts with the referring gender. In English, on the other hand, gender is a living classification, and contains no traditional elements.

Nouns denoting Persons

919. The names of male persons are **masculine**; the names of female persons are **feminine**.

Tell William to clear his table.
 Won't you help your sister to lace her boots?
 The teacher praised her pupils.
 The author has noted this, for she likens the horns
 (viz. of the animal hunted) to those of the bharal.
 Athenaeum.

920. The words *child*, *baby*, *twin* when referring to individuals are usually masculine, or feminine, according to the sex (*a*). When speaking of children as a class without distinguishing the sex the masculine pronouns are also used (*b*).

a. We'll have the table drawn away from the fire,
 and baby can lie on his shawl on the hearthrug while
 we're having tea.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II ch. 3 § 1.

The baby gave hand-signals with the aid of his
 mother. Pett Ridge, Garland p. 7.

He was doing this when a child came skipping joyously
 across the common, and pushing her way up to him
 through the circle of his listeners, handed him a note.

Allen, Choir Invisible.

b. A baby should have one bath every day, and if
 strong he may have two. The Child (see 923).

921. Nouns denoting persons may sink to the
 level of nouns denoting things, either because
 the person has not been identified, or is vaguely thought of,
 or because the person is considered a negligible quantity.

The use of the neuter pronouns to refer to nouns
 denoting persons is the clearest proof that English gender
 depends upon meaning: the pronoun does not really refer
 to the noun but to the idea in the speaker's mind.

922. We use *it* in referring to one person spoken
 of before, when the sentence serves to identify the

person, when it answers the question, ‘Who is it?’. It follows from the meaning of the sentence that it is always nominal, not verbal.

‘Do you see,’ he would say for example, ‘that Caterham has been talking about our stuff at the Church Association?’ — ‘Dear me!’ said Bensington, ‘that’s a cousin of the Prime Minister, isn’t it?’

Wells, Good of the Gods.

She had seen a man running through the woods some distance off and knew that it was Mortimore.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 10 p. 86.

Michael’s eye was caught as he spoke by a man he knew. It was Mr. St. Erth, the second partner in the firm.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 4 p. 34.

As he went along Mr. Purcey said: “That’s the young — the er — model I met in your wife’s studio, isn’t it? Pretty girl!” Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 31 p. 27.

A face showed itself with marked distinctness against the dark-tanned wood of the upper part. The owner, who was leaning against the settle’s outer end, was Clement Yeobright, or Clym, as he was called here; she knew it could be nobody else.

Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 167.

This use of *it* should not be confused with the use of *it* as a formal subject, as in *It is my father that said so.* See volume 3.

923. If the individuality of children is not regarded, words like *child* and *baby* are used as neuter nouns.

The Child: A Medical Guide to its Care and Management (title of a book).

Would-be M. P.: “I never could guess the babies’ sexes. Ended by calling them all ‘It.’” (That’s why he lost) ¹⁾. Punch.

1) i. e. the mothers were offended that he treated the children as inanimate

924. In familiar English, names of grown-up persons are also used as inanimate nouns (*a*). In most cases this use is affective, expressing contempt or endearment (*b*). The contempt or endearment, of course, consists in treating persons as if they were children or belonged to the category of things; see also the last quotation of 923.

a. At eleven o'clock that night a respectable man with weak eyes and a cold was communing with a commanding Presence that lived in a bureau — nothing less! — in the entrance-hall of the big hotel at the new St. Sennans... It lived in that bureau with a speaking-pipe to speak to every floor, etc.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 43

p. 465 (opening of chapter).

b. "Where did ye find it?" asked Mord Em'ly of Miss Gilliken, with a satirical accent. —

"Who are you calling 'it'?" demanded Mr. Barden aggressively. "P'raps you'll kindly call me 'im' and not 'it.'"
W. Pett Ridge, Mord Em'y.

After morning school I said to Broadbent, as we strolled down to the playing field, "well, what do you think of it?" (viz. of the new master).

"Looks as if it won't stand any rot," replied he in an aggrieved tone of voice.

Boy's Own Paper, 31/8, 1912, p. 761.

"Ay, ay! as large as life; and missy played the hostess. What a conceited doll it is!"

Brontë, Villette, ch. 24 p. 275.

"What's the matter, sweet one?" coming up and caressing Molly. "Is it worrying itself over that letter?"

Gaskell, Wives III p. 69 f.

Vivie. — You know what Mrs. Alison's suppers are. (She turns to Frank and pets him) Poor Frank! was all the beef gone? did it get nothing but bread and cheese and gingerbeer? Shaw, Mrs. Warren's Profession.

Compare the use of *thing* for persons.

It's all right; I think the old thing's deaf and dumb and blind ... Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 3 § 2 p. 269.

"She's quite deaf and blind," he said. "Poor old thing!"
ib.

Animate and Inanimate Compared 925. It will be useful to compare the twofold treatment of personal nouns in identifying (922) and in descriptive sentences. *He, she* are used when the sentence is descriptive, i. e. when it serves to give information about the person referred to, so that it treats of the question: "What is he, she?"

What a good-looking man he is!

Trollope, Last Chron. I ch. 31 p. 269.

I have never seen his wife; I only know she is an Englishwoman.

On nearer approach, he was still more surprised at the singularity of the stranger's appearance. He was a short, square-built old fellow, with thick bushy hair and a grizzled beard. W. Irving, Sketch-Book, p. 39.

I learnt to skate that winter; one of the masters taught me. His name was MacDougal, I think; he was a Scotchman. Sweet, Element. no. 65.

I will first introduce our father, as seems suitable. He is Mr. John Trent of the Minnebiac Planing Mills. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1.

926. Compare also the use of *it* and *he* in the following passages 1).

"Now, do you think the man you saw might have been Jules?"

"I hadn't previously thought of him as being Jules, but immediately you mentioned the name I somehow knew that he was. Yes, I am sure it was Jules."

A. Bennett, Grand Babylon ch. 23.

1) A very instructive passage will be found in Anthony Hope's *Prisoner of Zenda*, Chapter XX (the end). See also Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* I ch. 1 § 2 p. 29: *He was Mr. Povey, a person universally esteemed, etc.*; also ib. IV ch. 2 § 1 p. 458: *A man came up to me at Euston, etc.*

"Mamma, there's a man at the gate wanting to come in," said Jane. "I think he's a clergyman."

Mr. Crawley immediately raised his head, though he did not at once leave his chair. Mrs. Crawley went to the window, and recognised the reverend visitor. "My dear, it is that Mr. Thumble, who is so much with the bishop."

Trollope, Last Chronicle of Barset ch. XIII, p. 108.

927. It may be noted that it is sometimes possible to use it or he, she, according to the idea the speaker wishes to convey. To the question "Who is that boy?" the answer may be: "It is a cousin of mine"; but when the speaker thinks of the information he gives about the boy by mentioning his relationship to himself he would say: "He is a cousin of mine."

In "Confidence", by Henry James, an American is sketching a picturesque corner, when a young lady steps out of the church and places herself in the very centre of his foreground. He resolves to put her into his sketch, but before the sketch is finished she moves to go away. At his request she consents to pose. ".... she posed admirably; she was a fine creature to paint. Her prettiness inspired him, and also her audacity, as he was content to regard it for the moment. He wondered about her — who she was, and what she was...." — In this case the question 'who she was' clearly means much more than a wish to know the lady's name only; *she* is used because the painter did not regard her any more as an absolutely unknown quantity.

928. We occasionally find the masculine or feminine pronoun where we should expect *it*. Perhaps *he* is used because the writer had a vivid image in his mind of the person mentioned in the words immediately preceding. This would also explain why in the first of the following quotations

he is used in the first place, whereas in the second, when there has been time for the image to fade, the pronoun is *it*.

Suddenly there came the man. Some say he was Mr. E. V. Lucas, an author whom we trust it is no discourtesy to call celebrated. Others say it was Mr. Grant Richards, the well-known publisher. *Athenaeum.*

Certainty can never be got in the matter of *Plataeae*; but we have here a consistent and reasonable account, and one that reflects the greatest credit on the general who planned the battle. Who was *he*? Dr. Macan suggests *Themistocles*. *Athenaeum.*

... a note from John Gray, saying that he found them (viz. a bundle of lady's clothes) in the public road yesterday, and asking me to send them at once to the owner, if I should hear who she was; if not to advertise them¹⁾. *Allen, Choir.*

929. It seems that journalists have got hold of this and use it as a trick of refinement. The following are some of the cases observed in the *Daily News*.

I met to-day a strange, battered figure of a man — the first newspaper man so far as I am aware to be wounded in the war. *He* was Mr. Donald C. Thompson, one of the "camera men" of the "New York World".

l. c. 31/10, 1914.

An unusual feature of the investiture was the appearance of a lady to receive the V. C. *She* was Mrs. Green, widow of Captain John Leslie Green, to whom the award of the V. C. was notified on August 5. *ib. 9/10, 1916.*

Nouns denoting Animals

930. The gender of nouns denoting animals differs in some ways from that of nouns denoting persons, and yet the two classes are fundamentally identical in this respect.

1) This sentence may also be an attempt at imaginary grammatical correctness.

The attitude of speakers in a modern community towards animals is no more uniform: there are great differences between a city-bred speaker and a man bred in the country, and there are even greater differences between these two and the professional naturalist. Whereas the country-bred speaker has a larger number of domestic animals that he looks upon as individuals than the majority of townsmen, the naturalist extends his personal interest to all sorts of animals, again according to the range of his studies, and treats them accordingly.

All this will be illustrated in the following sections, and will be understood by the reader without detailed comment.

Animate 931. Names of animals may have a personal gender. This is naturally frequent in the case of domestic animals, which often show their personal character by having a proper name. In such a case the choice of masculine or feminine depends on sex.

The farmer whistled, and the mare came trotting up with her foal beside her.

While they were getting the furniture and stores out of the building, old Tom, the housecat, who had for five years kept the place free from mice, came tearing down the main staircase with his coat ablaze. He rushed out on to the lawn where a policeman shot him to end his misery.

Snuff, the brown spaniel, who had placed herself in front of him, and had been watching him for some time, now jumped up in impatience for the expected caress.

Eliot, *Silas Marner* ch. 3 p. 41.

932. Names of animals also have a personal gender when they are thought of as a class (*a*), or as members of a class (*b*). The nouns are usually masculine in this case, as may be illustrated by *horse*, *dog*, *elephant*, *lion*, *buffalo*, *fish* (*a*). The feminine gender is far less frequent.

and is probably due to the usually female sex of the animal, as in the case of *cat*, perhaps also of *parrot* (*c.*).

a. The haunts of the buffalo are in the hottest parts of Ceylon. He is about the size of a large ox.

The cold seems to take all the courage out of the thrush, while it puts the blackbird on his mettle.

A society that has no knowledge of theosophy need have no name for it; aborigines that had never seen or heard of a horse were compelled to invent or borrow a word for the animal when they made his acquaintance.

Sapir, Language p. 234.

The most tormenting and dangerous of the two evils is the fly. Some of us came here fully prepared against the mosquito only to find there is no trace of him. But the fly abounds in millions. From dawn to sunset he comes to torment your life. He swoops down in brigades upon your meals and altogether obliterated your plate.

Times 7/8, '15.

Had the little beetle that sailed across my path acted in such a way that he deserved his fate?

Benson, Thread of Gold p. 74.

This is the stag-beetle — "stags and does" is the native name for the two sexes; he is probably more abundant in this corner of Hampshire than in any other locality in England.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 4 p. 69.

If a blood-sucker hurts you, you can slap him to death, and there's an end of the matter; but slap at one of these idle, aimless, teasing flies as hard as you like, and he is gone like quicksilver through your fingers.

ib. ch. 3 p. 67.

b. That fly has been bothering me all the afternoon; I wish you would catch him.

Down the road there came in a drowsy amble an old white horse, his polished coat shining like silver when he crossed an expanse of sunlight, fading into spectral paleness when he passed under the rayless trees.

Allen, Choir Invisible.

Then, on a sudden, a trout is hooked, and a good one, six ounces for certain. He is beaten; pull him in and lift him out.

c. A parrot can talk like a man: she can repeat whole sentences, and knows what they mean.

Sweet, Element. no. 23.

Inanimate **933.** Names of animals are also treated as neuter nouns.

It's so nice and cosy to have a cat on the hearth-rug, to watch it cleaning itself with its paws and then curling up to go to sleep, and to hear it purring.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 74.

The other next-door neighbour of the bullfinch was the long-tailed tit, *which* built *its* beautiful little nest on a terminal spray of another yew¹⁾...

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 6f.

He jumped down to see how the young condor was faring in its cage covered by sacking.

Vachell, Spragge's Canyon p. 18.

A hen which had laid its thousandth egg.

934. The personal feeling for the individual animal may be the very reason for using the neuter pronoun; see 924.

She exclaimed, "Poor, sweet Carlo! I'm forgetting him. Come downstairs with me, poor, ittie doggie, and it shall have its tea. It shall!" Gaskell, Cranford p. 105.

**Animate and
Inanimate Compared** **935.** The result of the preceding statements is that one and the same writer may be found using the animate and the inanimate gender for the same animal (not only the same class of animal) in one sentence. It would be a mistake, of

1) Other examples of *who* and *which* referring to animal antecedents will be found in the sections on *Relative Pronouns*.

course, to imagine that this is a proof of the arbitrary character of the choice between the two alternatives. In many cases it is quite evident that the animate gender is used when the animal is thought of as an active agent, inanimate otherwise. The following quotations are from one book because this shows the reality of the distinctions more clearly than haphazard sentences from various sources could do.

The *Asilus* (an insect) was also very long-legged, and seizing the other with *its* legs, the two fell together to the ground. Stooping down I witnessed the struggle. They were locked together, and I saw the attacking insect raise *his* head and the forepart of *his* body so as to strike, then plunge *his* rostrum like a dagger in the soft part of *his* victim's body. Again and again *he* raised and buried *his* weapon in the other, and the other still refused to die or to cease struggling.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 2 p. 45 f.

The hawfinch and the bullfinch were also there, the last rearing *its* brood within eight yards of the front door. One of *his* two nearest neighbours was a gold-crested wren. When the minute bird was sitting on *her* eggs, in her little cradle-nest suspended to a spray of the yew, . . . Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 6 f.

It seems unnecessary to quote any further examples as the book is easily accessible.

Nouns denoting Plants

936. What has been observed about the gender of animals (930) applies essentially to nouns denoting plants. *Mutatis mutandis*, naturally; the *mutanda* being chiefly these two:

- (1) plants are less of individuals than animals to man.
- (2) sex plays a less prominent part in plants as viewed by the average man, and even by the expert.

It follows that the animate gender of nouns denoting plants is less common than that of animal names. The

matter becomes more complicated through the influence of the Latin technical words used in botany: many botanists tend to transfer the Latin gender to English, although it would seem that this chiefly decides the choice between masculine and feminine, not the one between animate and inanimate.

Where did you get over the border? —

Holland, after three days and nights on beets and turnips. Do you know the turnip *in a state of nature*, sir? *He's a homely fellow ...*

Galsworthy, Escape Part II Episode 4.

He nodded cheerfully to Guy: "Seen Vartani¹⁾? You know he's that pale blue fellow from Nazareth. Very often he's a washy lilac, but this is genuinely blue."

"No, I don't think I noticed it — him, I mean," said Guy apologetically.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline ch. 2.

Pauline rushed to embrace him, and he without a word led her to see where on a sunny bank Greek anemones had opened their deep-blue stars.

"Blanda," he whispered. "And I've never known her so deep in colour." ib. p. 103.

It seems superfluous to illustrate the inanimate gender of names of plants.

Names of Artificial Objects

Inanimate 937. Names of objects made by man are generally inanimate.

The table is in the way: put it into the corner.

A ship is classed according to its tonnage²⁾.

1) A flower.

2) The unemotional character of such a statement as this would hardly permit of treating *ship* as animate.

That engine was just as our own, and if it was without a train attached, as Jake supposed, might easily gain on us, as it seemed to be doing.

Animate **938.** There is a tendency towards the animate (masculine) gender for names of artificial (never natural) objects, but chiefly in familiar conversation, so that printed examples are rare¹⁾. Such nouns are *watch*, *pipe*, *kite*, *ball* (in playing cricket); I have even heard the pronoun *him* in reference to a chemical tabloid: *There is a little bit undissolved still. I can see him.* The speaker of this sentence was a man who had unresistingly submitted to the levelling process of the great English 'mills of gentility', as the Public Schools and 'ancient universities' have been called by an English critic (Mr. Galsworthy). It may be added, however, that the English schoolmaster is trying to expel the animate gender of things, like all other expressions of emotion.

And look at those furnaces of mine, how they rise upon us as we come down the hill. That to the right is my pet — seventy feet of him. I packed him myself, and he's bottled away cheerfully with iron in his guts for five long years. I've a particular fancy for him.

Wells, Country p. 32.

"Never mind looking at the desk now. We'll do him to-morrow^{2).}" De Morgan, Vance, ch. 36.

939. Some groups of nouns denoting artificial things show a peculiarity in that they take the feminine gender, when used as animate nouns. The use is essentially of a technical character, but it has spread beyond professional circles. It is especially names of ships and machines that

1) The masculine gender is the rule in some dialects.

2) i. e. examine it.

are often used as feminine nouns: *ship, schooner, frigate, mail, steamer, boat, engine, train, locomotive, motor, balloon, aeroplane*, etc. The last quotation refers to a piano which is being moved.

It was very squally out at sea last night. A fishing boat got wrecked off the coast near here. Great seas swept over her and carried away the steering-gear. She then drifted helplessly on to a sunken reef, etc.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 36.

"You don't allow any time for the motor to break down," I said. — "I don't hope that she will break down." Williamson, The Botor-Chaperon p. 34.

In the evening it was announced that an accident had happened similar to that which happened to our own "Nulli Secundus" (viz. a balloon). But "Nulli Secundus" made herself ridiculous; the "Zeppelin" became tragic. She broke away from her mooring ropes, took fire, and disappeared into the air. Sat. Rev. 8/8, 1908.

I saw the *Ben Franklin* standing on the side-track with steam up just as we started. From the way she overhauls us, there can't be much of a train behind her.

As it was, the driver of the taxi... sat down again in the saddle and proceeded to let her out a bit further.

Snaith, Principal Girl, p. 29.

The train is late, Robert, isn't she?

Hunt, White Rose p. 233.

Here we engaged our punt, a charming light one with ample cushions. The *Pons Asinorum* was ours to have and to hold as long as we chose to keep her. I suppose one does speak of a punt as 'she' in spite of its very unfeminine appearance. Barbara, p. 19.

Then "Damn!" cried a Voice. "Steady on my feet, can't yeh? Bit more to the right. Whoa! Up your end a bit. 'At's it. When was she tuned last? Give us a scale." Thomas Burke, Nights in Town p. 134.

The technical character of this personal gender is also suggested by the following quotation.

The coachman had already replied, 'Yes, he'd taken her through it,' — meaning by Her the coach, — 'if so be as George would stand by him.' Dickens, *The Holly Tree*, in Selected English Short Stories II p. 113.

940. Names of ships and machines are sometimes masculine instead of feminine. See 938.

The "fragile" submarine does not fare well in attacks upon anything which can hit back. Out of 100 ships armed with a single gun, which he assails some 70 to 75 beat him off and escape, while out of 100 unarmed ships 74 become his victims. Times W. 2/3, '17.

It is the fête of the small car. And there he goes, dozens of him, nipping quietly and sweetly along the dustless surface. ib. 17/4, '14.

941. We also find the twofold gender of the same word in two successive sentences; it may be a mixture of professional and non-professional language, but in the following instance the animate gender seems to be used because the car is thought of as animate (a friend or a companion).

As we were returning from Cettinje to Cattaro, the steering-gear of my Mercédès (viz. a motor-car) suddenly broke at a corner, with the result that the car butted into and partly through a parapet, and finally stopped with its front portion protruding over a precipice. The windings of the military road to Cattaro thus became for the car an irremediable error, and we had to leave her until such time as she should be repaired.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 5.

Other Nouns

942. All nouns that do not denote persons, animals, plants, or artificial objects are inanimate in spoken English.

On gender in literary English, see the chapter at the end of this volume.

He had no belief in the modern theory of the State—that it is omnipotent and may recognize no limits but its own will. Athen., 18/1, 1908.

English literature is very old. It is in fact the oldest of all the modern literatures of Europe. Its beginnings date from as far back as the seventh century.

Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 1.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

943. The parts of speech that we have dealt with up to now, the verbs and the nouns, are characterized by inflection. No other words are so distinguished in English. It is usual in English grammar to deal with adjectives and adverbs as two distinct parts of speech. It may be well, therefore, in dealing with these words, first to answer the question on what differences this classification is based.

In a number of cases there are two words of closely related or identical meaning that serve two functions or groups of functions. Thus we find *good* as an attributive and predicative adjunct (both in nominal and in verbal sentences), whereas *well* is used in the same meaning as an adverb adjunct only. Similar pairs are *bad* and *ill*; but their number is so small that no one would think of basing a grammatical classification on them, if there were not other pairs. Such are the words with the suffix *-ly* that are used as adverb adjuncts, the simple words being used as attributive or predicative adjectives: *carefully* and *careful*. This group is far more numerous than the first group, and is the chief reason for distinguishing adjectives and adverbs in English.

944. It must be considered, however, that English does not in all cases distinguish the two groups of functions by the forms of the words. Thus *hard* is used in *hard work* as well as in *to work hard*; similarly for *fair* (*to copy fair*) and many other cases that may be found in the dictionary; a few instances are given below (a).

It may be added that when there is a distinct adverb form, as in *quick* and *quickly*, popular English frequently uses the shorter form as an adverb, especially with the suffixes of comparison added to them (*b*). On a possible difference between the forms with *-ly* and without, see the chapter on *Word-formation* in volume 3.

a. to run hard, to speak plain, to look sharp, to grasp tight, etc.

He has repaid me tenfold.

That is a thousandfold worse.

"Why do you tell *me* this? For God's sake, speak plain! I am stronger than you think."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 46 p. 507.

(He) suspected also that Miss Nightingale had not reported fair, in order to prevent him coming.

ib. ch. 23 p. 242.

Well, getting rich quick hasn't turned his head as it has hers. Collinson, *Spoken English* p. 74.

b. It was a longer pause than it seemed to him, as all things appeared to happen quickly in it, somewhat as in a photographic life-picture when the films are run too quick. de Morgan, *I. c.* ch. 46 p. 500.

She would have liked to go much quicker.

ib. p. 506.

He perceived a joke quicker than most of us.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 148.

The closer we look at medieval England, the more we shall feel inclined to picture it as young and hardy and joyous. Salzman, *Engl. Life in the Middle Ages* p. 24.

We can examine the psychology of a writer easier than we can that of any other man.

James Stephen, *Eng. Rev.* April 1914.

Her heart beat more feebly and slower.

Gaskell, *Wives II* p. 278.

It may also be observed that some words that are used as adverb adjuncts and as nominal predicates, such

as *in*, *out*, can be used attributively when they have a suffix of comparison added to them: *inner*, *outer*, etc.

945. A small number of very frequently used adverbs have no closely related adjective forms, or no such forms at all. Among these are *now*, *soon*, etc., and a number of adverbs that are formally related, sometimes rather distantly, with the pronouns: *here*, *there*, *then*, *when*, *how*, *why*. These last will be treated in the sections on the Pronouns.

ADJECTIVES

946. The most important function of adjectives is to serve as attributive adjuncts to the following noun. Attributive adjectives are chiefly used to express a quality of the following noun. But they also frequently express a feeling connected with the noun: *a delightful day* may mean a day of beautiful weather but also a day when the speaker was very happy. Similarly *happy* and *uneasy* are used in the following examples.

Yet this was no inconsiderable work for seven short years. Wakeman, Introd. p. 18.

She had often spoken of the little, happy stream to Evan. Meredith, Harrington ch. 23 p. 235.

It was an uneasy thought. Sinister Street p. 1006.

Also: *a pleasant surprise*, *a sad event*, *merry days*.

947. *Possible* is a sort of modal adjective in the following quotations.

It was an occasion, I felt — the prospect of a large party — to look out at the station for others, possible friends and even possible enemies, who might be going. James, Sacred Fount ch. 1.

In the Caucasus, as in Finland, she (viz. Russia) has

adopted the steam-roller policy, and by crushing national aspirations has estranged possible loyalists.

Westminster Gazette 16/6, 1906.

It was characteristic of him that he asked Zachary Tan no questions whether of the mysterious bookshop, of London generally, or of any possible news about Stephen... Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 p. 111.

Very similar is the meaning of *barest* and *unwilling* in the following sentences.

But he had an amazing number of things to think about and the solicitor's office was the barest background for his chasing thoughts. ib. I ch. 10 p. 111.

The tall man fighting such odds excited his unwilling admiration. Galsworthy, Caravan I p. 5.

948. Sometimes the relation between noun and adjective is less simple¹⁾. We may distinguish the following cases:

1. the noun is closely connected in meaning and in form with a verb.

In this case the adjective has a function very similar to that of an adverb.

a regular contributor; frequent complaints; a frequent visitor; a small eater; a good teacher; careful reading; fast walking.

He was a very early riser, a hard student, a great smoker and tea-drinker; a man of splendid physique, tall and burly, with superabundant health.

Dict. Engl. Church s.v. Burnet.

The immediate bystanders could hear that he called her mother. Hardy, Ironies (Son's Veto).

There was a general laugh; there was a fierce struggle. She gave a slight cough.

1) In this section I owe much to the treatment in Jespersen's Modern English Grammar, and to an article by W. van Doorn in *Ber. en Med. Lev. Talen* no. 30 (1923).

The book is in great demand.

This hat is a perfect fit.

Recent associates outside his family circle recognised in him the promise of fitness for public life.

Sidney Lee, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 3.

The slowest eater at the second freshmen's table had nervously left half his savoury. Sinister Street p. 518.

If I had proposed to any servant of mine to assume that coat of many colours, I should have received an immediate month's warning. Hole, Memories p. 33.

Examples are very frequent with names of agents (most of them ending in *-er*, *-or*), and with nouns (or verbals) in *-ing*. It may be added that the close connection between noun and verb is shown by the frequent use of the same preposition: see the chapter on *Prepositions*.

In poetry adjectives with an adverbial meaning are used even when the noun is not formally related to a verb. An example is *casual eyes* in Robert Southey's *Scholar*:

My days among the Dead are past.

Around me I behold,

Where'er these casual eyes are cast,

The mighty minds of old.

2. the noun is closely connected with an adjective.

In this case also the adjective has partly an adverbial function.

A perfect stranger; comparative wealth, luxury.

A period of comparative repose.

Life of Ainger p. 115.

A letter from his publishers informing him of a tenth edition was of ironical unimportance.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 3 p. 258.

The traffic got into a complete tangle.

To leave a person much apparent liberty.

We also find adjectives as adjuncts to adjectives converted into nouns (*the comparative few*), but the adverb is

more usual here, to express degree. Hence the difference between *the hopeless poor* and *the hopelessly poor*.

He uses the language, enjoys the emotions, attains to the discipline, and exercises the convinced power of the spiritually free. Times Lit. 3/12, 14 p. 533/3.

To the relatively poor (who are so much worse off than the poor absolutely) education is in most cases a mocking cruelty. Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 3.

3. the noun and the adjective form what is in some respects a compound.

Bishops and abbots became *large* land-owners in right of their sees and abbacies. Many of their parish clergy became *small* landowners through the gifts of benefactors to their churches. On these ecclesiastical lands lived a large labouring population in various degrees of prosperity.

Wakeman, Introduction p. 95.

Compare also the genitive-groups, like *a ladies' man* (853 ff.).

4. the adjective expresses the agent of the action referred to by the headword.

In this case the function of the adjective is the same as that of a subjective genitive, or of an adjunct with of¹⁾.

We were finally forbidden by *parental* authority to continue our importations. Hole, Memories p. 221.

He examined with *proprietary* solicitude the espaliers of apple-trees ... Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 16.

949. In many cases the relation of noun and adjective is very vague (apart from the special context which usually makes it perfectly clear).

1. Chaucer's Italian journey.
2. Chaucer's Italian period.

1) Thus we may say: *by royal command*, *by the King's command*, *by command of H. M. the King*.

3. Italian literature.
4. An Italian grammar.
5. An Italian scholar on English Literature.
6. Sir Thomas Browne, who resided for a time in Italy, and was presumably a good Italian scholar, has four or five interesting quotations from the 'Commedia'.

Edinb. Rev. April 1908, p. 408.

In the second act we pass from Gibraltar and a dialogue twixt Nelson and Collingwood, through two French scenes — scenes we mean from the French side (Villeneuve at Ferrol and the Boulogne camp once more) — back to Wessex. ib. p. 424.

The Bulletin can be bought of any Oriental bookseller¹⁾.

Times Lit. 16/11, '17.

The crying need for an Oriental School in London.
Athen. 28/8, 15.

And then, in an unthinking moment, I idly turned the leaves. Jerome, Three Men in a Boat, ch. 1.

He could not help noticing and admiring Haddon's swift dexterity, in spite of his envious quality²⁾ and his disposition to detract. Wells, Country p. 166.

He felt it needed explanation, and he hurried to secure an elbowed, unsavoury corner in the back of the court in order to hear her defence. He had to wait through long stuffy spaces of time before she appeared.

Wells, Harman ch. 9 § 3.

His love of reading and inactive habits.

Macdonald, Pref. to John Galt's Annals p. VIII.

Last month we drew attention to the widespread character of this uprising of a hitherto somewhat placid section of the community. Times Ed. S. 6/6, '16.

He was as a fish with the hook in his gills, mysteriously caught without having nibbled; and dive into what depths he would, he was sensible of a summoning force that compelled him perpetually towards the gasping surface.

Meredith, R. Feverel.

1) i. e. any seller of oriental books, or books on oriental subjects.

2) i. e. in spite of his being envious.

They had been the subjects of unblushing extortion.

Returning one night from a dinner, he invited a dramatic friend, who does not restrict his love of comedy to the stage, to take a seat in his hansom, as he should pass his door. Hole, *Memories* p. 64.

To shake a warning head, to raise a threatening finger.

He was drinking a lonely cocktail.

It is unnecessary to multiply examples; they are to be found everywhere. Thus in the Introduction prefixed to the collection of short stories by Mr. H. G. Wells, the author in the first five pages speaks of:

the *friendly* accommodation of Messrs. Macmillan; an *inclusive* and not an *exclusive* gathering; that *initial* nucleus¹⁾; the nineties was a good and *stimulating* period for a short-story writer; in the *dignified* pages of the *Fortnightly Review*.

I suppose it is the lot of every critic nowadays to suffer from indigestion and a *fatigued* appreciation, and to develop a *self-protective* tendency towards rules that will reject, as it were, automatically the more *abundant* and irregular form.

Compare also:

He found that he couldn't eat. There was a *silly* lump in his throat and he looked at the marble pillars and the heavy curtains through a kind of mist.

Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 5 p. 197 f.

Her predilection for things French came from *childish* recollection of schooldays in Paris.

Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 165.

The twelve-foot drop into the garden below was nothing: the young man accomplished it with an *enthusiastic* absence of hesitation.

Mackenzie, *Rich Relatives* ch. 1 p. 22.

1) A nucleus that is a beginning.

"I'll run back."

"Do", she answers.

The *sensible* horses stood perfectly still, and the waggoner's steps sank fainter and fainter in the distance¹).

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. I p. 4.

950. What can be predicated of a noun is generally a quality, one of its attributes. Adjectives that are used predicatively can normally be used attributively as well; a group of a noun with an attributive adjective may, indeed, be looked upon as a consolidated nominal sentence.

It is exceptional for adjectives to be used attributively only. They are (1) adjectives denoting materials (*a wooden leg*); (2) adjectives denoting a relation in space or time (*my left hand*); also the derivatives in *-er* from adverbs: *inner*, *outer*, and similarly *elder*, etc., on which see the sections on *Comparison* in volume 3. This restriction is evidently the result of the meaning²); thus *wooden* is freely used predicatively in derived meanings: *his style is very wooden*.

On the attributive *own*, see *Personal-Possessive Pronouns*.

951. An attributive adjective forms a very close group with its following noun; the adjective is distinctly subordinate. Hence this order is the natural one when the adjective expresses some permanent quality, but when something momentaneous or at least temporary is meant, this order of words is reversed, and the adjective has post-position: see the chapter on *Word-order* in volume 3.

When we say that *the clock is fast*, it may be doubtful whether the sentence is purely nominal, for *to be* may be supposed to have some meaning. But the temporary

1) In this sentence *sensible* accounts for the action in the verbal predicate.

2) On the meanings of nominal sentences, see volume 3.

character of the quality is sufficient to prevent the adjective from being used attributively, so that we never speak of *a fast clock*, although *fast women* is (and are) common enough. Similarly the adjective *well* expressing a state of health is not used attributively; if it is so found in an exceptional case, the quality will be found to imply what is thought of as more or less permanent, as in the following sentence.

Of course, I was frightened — scared to death. A well child was difficult enough — but a sick one!

Strand Magazine Oct. 1920.

952. Some other cases when a word is used predicatively only may be partly due to another cause. Thus *afraid* may still be felt to be a participle; at any rate it takes the adverbs of degree peculiar to verbs: *much* (not *very*), and *too much* (not *too*).

The exclusively predicative use of a number of words beginning with *a-* might be partly due to tradition, for they are adverbial groups in origin. Such are *afloat*, *alert*, *asleep*, *awake*, etc.; also *alone* and *aware* which are different formations. But here, too, it is probably the meaning chiefly, if not exclusively, that prevents the attributive use of these words, for we find them so used in compounds, i. e. when the word is less characteristically temporary, as in *wide-awake*, *sound-asleep*.

When we occasionally find these adjectives used attributively it is probably because the temporary character is less prominent; sometimes, indeed, it is clearly gone.

Mr. Munro was taken prisoner by the alert Boy.

Strand Mag. July 1925.

And the clear alert mind, the scheming brain, etc.
Bar. Orczy, Eldorado (T.) II p. 29.

Andrew had a reserved, an austere, an aloof air;

Simon an alert, lissom air; the air of Charles was fidgety.
Hutchinson, One Increasing Purpose I ch. 1 p. 9.

The permanent character of the quality also comes out by the adverb of degree accompanying it in the following sentence.

She, too, was human, quiet, gentle, very unaware.
Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 15.

Other adjectives that are used predicatively only are *content*, *exempt*, *wont*. None of them take the suffixes of comparison, even though there are no formal objections to it, so that the cause must be looked for in the meaning.

ADVERBS

953. It has been shown, in the introductory section to this chapter, that adjectives and adverbs are primarily classified on the ground of their function in the sentence, although a small number of words are formally characterized (the words in *-ly*). A word is called an adverb when its chief function is to serve as an adverb adjunct¹⁾. Such adverbs are *here*, *now*, *then*, *always*, *quite*, *never*, *already*, as well as most of the words in *-ly*.

The adverbs chiefly express place, time, degree, or manner. It seems unnecessary to give examples here, because they will be illustrated in the chapter on *Word-order* in volume 3.

There is a fifth class of adverbs that must be distinguished on the ground of their meaning, which also affects their place in the sentence. They are such adverbs as *fortunately*, *unhappily*, etc., which do not, like the majority of adverbs,

1) On the connection of adverbs with prepositions and conjunctions, see the chapters on these 'parts of speech.'

qualify some part of the sentence, but the sentence as a whole: *Fortunately he was prepared for the request.* For further examples of this class, too, the reader may be referred to the chapter on *Word-order*.

954. Another group of adverbs is illustrated by these sentences.

I *really* don't know him.

You must *not* do that.

He will *probably* be able to help you.

These adverbs denote the attitude of the speaker towards the idea expressed by the connection of subject and predicate, especially in how far the sentence is to be taken as an expression of a fact or not: they express *modality*.

Adverbs of modality are used:

(1) to confirm.

He will *certainly* come.

(2) to deny.

I do *not* believe him.

(3) to express or emphasize probability, etc., all these being forms of uncertainty.

He may *possibly* arrive in time.

He knows about it *apparently*.

955. In conditional clauses *only* is used modally. It expresses that the speaker would like the condition to be possible.

If I *only* knew what was the matter with him, I might know what to do.

The conditional clause may also be used as an exclamatory sentence, to express a wish.

If I *only* knew what was the matter with him.

956. A number of words that are classed as adverbs are sometimes used predicatively in nominal sentences. An example has been mentioned in 443; other cases of the same type are: *Mr. Jones is in; Time is up; The sun is up; Father is out; The book is out; You are quite out; The struggle is not yet over; He is behind with his rent; The blinds were down*, etc.

He did not remember the drawing-room otherwise than a closed room. Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 1.

Have the children in.

I'll have you up¹⁾.

On the 15th, he tried again, and was again refused; and having now been used for the last two months to see his friend almost daily, he found this return of solitude to weigh upon his spirits. The fifth night he had in Guest to dine with him; and the sixth he betook himself to Dr. Lanyon's. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

Also in *to have it out, to fight it out*; see 1016.

These adverbs are not used attributively, in accordance with what has been observed in 951.

Adverbs of time and place do occur as attributive adjuncts; this does not prevent us from classing them as adverbs, for their place after the leading noun differentiates them clearly from adjectives. Such adverbs are *here* and *there*: *the man here; the peg there*; also: *the day before, the day after*.

1) i. e. before a magistrate.

PRONOUNS

957. The distinction of pronouns as a special class of words is often based, in modern scientific grammars, on their inflections, which differed from those of nouns in the older periods of Indo-Germanic languages. But the distinction was originally made rather on account of the functions and meanings of the words, and there are many facts of this nature in living English that induce us to retain the traditional arrangement.

958. As to inflections, they are now lost, so that it is impossible to speak of a pronominal system of inflections. The chief remains of the old inflections are the neuter ending *-t* (in *it*, *what*, compared with *he* and *who*), and the oblique (originally dative) ending *-m* in *him* and *whom*¹), but all these endings are completely fossilized, and of no importance in the structure of living English.

959. The pronouns that are used in the same functions as nouns differ from nouns in more important respects, however. They never have the nominal plural ending (except *others*). Indeed, they often have one form only for the neutral (or singular) and the plural function (*you*, *who*, *some*, *any*). If there are two forms to express number, one is often not really the plural of the other: thus *they* is not the plural of *he* or *she* or *it*; still less is *we* the plural of *I*.

The noun-pronouns do not take an article nor do they

¹) As far as *whom* can be said to exist in living English.

necessarily take other attributive pronouns (with the exception of *other*); compare the difference between *all* and *a little* in the following sentence: *In fact, Mr. Trevelyan's review of poetic specimens has all the air and a little of the anguish of a museum catalogue.* Times Lit. 10/9, 1925.

When an attributive adjective qualifies a noun-pronoun it must follow the pronoun (*He looked like one dead; something important*), whereas it precedes nouns. See *Wordorder*.

Pronouns used in the same function as adjectives frequently have no propword *one*. And their conversion to nouns is not so restricted as that of ordinary adjectives: *some*, e. g., can be used substantively without the article, and in a general sense.

960. The personal pronouns and the interrogative-relative *who* have forms that correspond to the genitive of nouns. But the personal pronouns have different forms, indeed mostly completely distinct words, to denote the functions in the sentence, one form serving for the grammatical subject, the other for all other functions. There is nothing corresponding to this in the nouns.

961. With regard to their meaning, it may be said that pronouns are merely form-words; they do not denote persons or things or qualities but point to them. Sometimes adverbs are closely related to them in function, often also in form. These pronominal adverbs (*then, when, etc.*), like the nouns and conjunctions that may be considered as pronoun-equivalents, are best treated in connection with the pronouns concerned.

962. It may be said that pronouns have a very general meaning. But some nouns and adjectives may have an equally general meaning, so that it would be impossible to distinguish pronouns from other words on the ground of their

meaning only. Thus *men* or *people* are frequently used in the same way as the indefinite *they*; also *thing*, *matter*, less often *part*, *affair*, *particular*, may be quite vague in meaning.

Things had changed greatly in the course of a year.
Freeman, Norman Conquest, 114.

I'll buy a cloak for her the first thing to-morrow morning.
Anstey, Tinted Venus.

Just now it is the summer of things; there is life and bustle everywhere.
Fairless, Roadmender I.

This seems to be carrying matters too far.
Blackstone, Commentaries.

He had had, as he phrased it, a matter of four wives.
Samuel Johnson.

Lackland boarded once, for the matter of a fortnight, in St. Edmundsbury Convent. Carlyle, Past and Present.

Burford has been rediscovered. And the pleasant part about it is that . . . it thoroughly deserves rediscovery.
Times, Lit. Suppl. 3/2, 1921 1).

Their material world was a perfectly clear-cut and comprehensible affair, and everything that was not material was merely moral.
Times Lit. 29/7, 23.

A bottle of a particular²⁾ old wine.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll ed. Schutt p. 50.

963. The traditional classification of pronouns is open to criticism. It is not consistent: thus the indefinite *one* is also a personal pronoun, like the interrogative *who*. The personal pronouns of the third person have demonstrative functions, and the demonstrative pronouns are used anaphorically like the personal pronouns of the third person. The possessive pronouns are in all respects genitives of the personal pronouns, and have been treated as such together with the genitives of nouns. There seems no reason to look

1) Compare also 936.

2) i. e. certain.

upon them as a separate class of pronouns. The interrogative and relative pronouns form a single group, like the demonstrative pronouns and the definite article, which is the weak form of a demonstrative pronoun, just as the indefinite article is the weak form of the indefinite pronoun *one*. The indefinite pronouns include words of various kinds: *some* is generally quantitative, like *several*; it is even called definite in comparison with *any*, especially in interrogative and conditional sentences; *no* is negative. Attempts have sometimes been made to improve the classification of pronouns, but the only result has been, at best, to show the grammarian's ingenuity. The indefinite pronouns have especially been the subject of such experiments. And it is perfectly true that no definition has been given that applies to all of them¹⁾. But there is no reason why we should attempt such a definition; it is enough to have a name to refer to a number of pronouns. The chapter on indefinite pronouns may be considered as the lumber-room of the pronouns; and a lumber-room may be as convenient in grammar as it is in a house.

Among the nouns with a very general meaning referred to in 962 the word *thing* shows so many points of resemblance to pronouns in its functions that it is convenient to treat it as an indefinite pronoun.

It would be possible to include more words in this chapter, e.g. the numerals, but their treatment can be left to the dictionary.

1) The student of Indogermanic languages is aware that several of them were originally inflected like adjectives or nouns. And a pronoun like *one* is even now clearly identical in form with the numeral. But all this is of no value when we interpret what the words mean in living English.

SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Forms

964. The simple personal pronouns have the following forms:

Singular					
	Nom.	Oblique	Genitive		
			Attrib.	Indep.	
1st p.	I	me	my	mine	
3rd p.	M.	he	him	his	
	F.	she	her		hers
	N.	it		its	—
Plural					
1st p.	we	us	our	ours	
3rd p.	they	them, 'em	their	theirs	
2nd p.		you	your	yours	
S. and Pl.					

965. All of these pronouns have special weak-stressed forms with the exception of *I* and, of course, the independent genitives, which do not occur in unstressed positions. In the weak-stressed forms [ɪ] is substituted for [i], as in *me*, *he*, *she*, *we*; [ʊ] for [u] in *you*; [ə] for [ʌ] in *us*, and for [e] in *them*. The pronouns *it* and *'em* are always weak in spoken English¹⁾. Initial *h-* is apt to be lost in weak-stressed positions. See Sweet, *Primer of Spoken English* p. 20, and the texts themselves, which show that the attributive genitives are also affected by the stress,

1) The form [əm] is only used in very colloquial English. It is taken for an abbreviation of [əm] *them*; hence the spelling with an apostrophe: *'em*

[məɪ, əuə] etc. being substituted by Sweet for the strong forms [mai, auə] etc. On the relation of weak and strong forms, see 997.

Nominative and Oblique

966. The personal pronouns of the first and third persons differ from all other words in English by having two separate words, or distinct forms of what may be looked upon as one word, for different functions in the sentence. The traditional terms *nominative* and *oblique* may be retained as long as the ideas associated with them in other languages are not mechanically transferred to English¹⁾.

967. The nominative is used chiefly as the grammatical subject of the sentence (*a*), the oblique in all other functions (*b*).

a. I have done my duty.

b. I saw him come.

We told him the story.

"If you can't find anything better to do," said she,
"butter me the inside of this dish."

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 3 § 1 p. 49.

Think of me.

968. The nominative is the usual form in Standard English for the function of the nominal predicate (*a*), but for the first person singular *me* is the normal form (*b*).

a. Ah! who was I that I should quarrel with the town
for being changed to me, when I myself had come
back so changed to it. Forster-Gissing.

Ah, is that he, really?

H. James, Lesson of the Master.

She gave a little startled cry, like a twittering bird, as
she saw that it was he and she came towards him with
her hand out. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 8 § 3 p. 90.

1) As the table of pronouns in 964 shows, the term *oblique* as used here does not include the genitive.

b. Was I indeed Elvesham, and he me?

Wells, Country p. 155.

There is little doubt that *it is I* will one day be as impossible in English as *c'est je*, for *c'est moi*, is now in French¹⁾. Sapir, Language p. 179.

"Perhaps, though," she added, "it was me came up from under the bedclothes too soon."

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 5 p. 47
(also ib. ch. 9 p. 79).

969. In spoken English the other oblique forms are also used as nominal predicates. The first quotation shows the attitude of those who have been taught what they suppose to be 'Latin and universal grammar.'

A maiden beside me uttered an ecstatic though subdued cry of 'That's him!' when Willemus Enricus Jones appeared in all the white glory of his hood.

Alas! that classic walls and cultured ears should hear such grammar! Barbara, p. 70.

They did not foresee the miraculous generation which is us. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 1 § 2.

Princess: "She suggested... that she should be me, and I should be her."

Duke: "That's not grammar, Sophia."

Princess: "Oh, bother grammar, Papa. Dont you see? We dress up, I as Attalie (there, that's grammar) and Attalie as me."

Duke: "That isn't". Hope in Swaen I, p. 19.

Why not look round the corner and see if it isn't him? de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 3 p. 32.

Isn't that them coming to meet us?

ib. ch. 36 p. 387 (ib. ch. 12 p. 120).

I wish mamma was my aunt-by-marriage, and she her!
ib. ch. 20 p. 202.

1) The cases are not identical at present. For French *je* is always weak-stressed, and exclusively used with a verbal form (an enclitic particle), whereas English *I* is freely used in any position, and has not even a genuinely weak-stressed form.

970. The personal pronouns can also be used as independent words. The strong-stressed nominative is used with a preceding *not* to express an emphatic, often indignant, repudiation of a suggestion. In this case strong *it* is also used.

But she would not do either—not she!

Gaskell, North and South ch. 16 p. 136.

“Do you think it will last long?”

“Not it!” said Mr. Critchlow positively.

Bennett, Old Wives’ Tale II ch. 5.

971. As the oblique pronouns are the usual, indeed the almost invariable, forms in the predicate of a sentence, they tend to become the regular forms in all positions except the pre-verbal one, where the nominative is invariably used as a subject (*a*). They can also be used absolutely in exclamations (*b*) and when the pronoun is used as a class-noun (*c*):

a. We’ve talked it over, us two.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 28 p. 306.

They were *fiancés*, and on the way the news came of the outbreak of cholera. So she got hung up for a while at Penderfield’s — sort of cousin, I believe, him or his wife — till the district was sanitary again.

ib. ch. 7 p. 60.

“Dr. Vereker?”

“Yes. Dr. Him. Exactly.” ib. ch. 16 p. 162.

Compare also:

They’ve never hit it off, she and them, among themselves.

J. D. Beresford, The Jervaise Comedy ch. 9 p. 163.

b. He tapped the porch nervously with his cane, sniffed his heliotrope and said irrelevantly: “Ah me, what a beautiful night! What a beautiful night!”

Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

“Of course, we are all fools,” said the man. “So are you” —

“Me!” cried Mr. P. startled.

"Me! me pay!" I exclaimed, rendered ungrammatical by surprise.

c. It is too late for poor me to hope for a husband from one of them, said the lady pouting and laughing.
Meredith, Feverel p. 87.

I shall be worse than a widow — an Indian girl widow Suttee¹⁾; what will be left of me but ashes?... Some poor dregs of Joan carrying on a bankrupt life... No me... Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 13 § 13.

"He has not come." Oh to be caring for a he.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 7 p. 75.

972. In familiar English the oblique forms are also used as a subject with weak stress, but only after the predicative verb.

So we won't say anything to mamma, will us, little woman? de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 6 p. 53.

Shall we — I mean shall us — be getting on?
Barry Pain, This Charming Green-Hat-Fair ch. 4 p. 31.

973. Both the nominative and oblique are sometimes used in cases when their grammatical function is not evident or undoubted. This occurs when two nouns or pronouns are combined by the conjunctions *as*, *but*, *except*, *than*. For these words, serving to subordinate a part of the sentence, may also be looked upon as prepositions, which make the following noun or pronoun into an adjunct. As the pronouns are usually stressed the oblique may also be due to the independent character of the pronouns (971). If we exclude *except*, this seems, indeed, the more likely explanation.

974. With *but*, *as*, and *than* the nominative forms after *but*, *as*, *than* is considered the correct form; in other words: they are primarily conjunctions.

I am one among a thousand; all of them wrong but I.
Newman, Disc. and Arguments.

1) Hindu widow who immolates herself on her husband's funeral pyre.

What was the right of so miserable a creature as she to excite disturbance? Meredith, *Egoist*.

Clearly, it was not for such as he to demean himself by bellowing and cuffing.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 185.

'My wife!' said the other bitterly. 'She's above mating with such as I...' Hardy, *Native I* ch. 2 p. 12.

God keep you out of the clutches of such a man as he.
Conan Doyle, *Sherlock Holmes*.

I have known much more highly-instructed persons than he make inferences quite as wild.

George Eliot, *Mill on the Floss*.

975. In colloquial English the oblique forms are also found.

Nobody knew what ailed her but me.

C. Brontë quoted in Gaskell, *Life* ch. 8 p. 114.

The house of Latcham was on its last legs, notwithstanding all the state and splendour. There was no one who could save it but him. Garvice, Lorrie p. 112.

There's nobody here but us. Cut away, Tishy!

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 18 p. 175.

The Jervaise prestige couldn't stand such relations as us, living at their very door.

Beresford, *Jervaise Comedy* ch. 11 p. 207.

You ate about five times as much as me anyhow.

Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale III* ch. 2 § 1.

Really in one way poor Clarie is in a better position than me. Sinister Street p. 757.

"That is a point of which you should know more than me," she remarked drily.

Bennett, *The Grand Babylon Hotel*.

Even Jane, with her shrewdness of vision, was misled by this into the belief that Mary cared less than them all what interest the Abbotscombe coach might bring for the moment into their lives.

Temple Thurston, *The Green Bough (T.)* p. 26.

As judged by ear, the double resonances of [a, ɔ] and

[u] are quite as clear as the others and are indeed easier than them to demonstrate by the clapping method.

Sir R. Paget, Human Speech V p. 77.

976. After *than* the oblique form of the relative *whom* is invariably used; but the construction is purely literary. See the chapter at the end of this volume.

Here is Mr. Ratler, than whom no authority on such a subject can be better. Trollope, Prime Minister.

977. After *except* the oblique forms are Forms after *except* the rule: the word is primarily a preposition.

No one ever knew of this night's episode except us three. Muloch, John Halifax.

"Hullo!" she said. "Are you Mr. Sefton?"

"Guilty," he answered.

"Well, they're all out except me."

Strand Mag. Dec. 1926.

All the rest, except the Rooses and me, are married — the women, I mean.

El. Glyn, Visits of Elizabeth (T.) p. 14.

978. The nominative is also found.

And everybody is to know him except I?

Meredith, Comedians.

This may be the result of *except* being taken as a conjunction, which it undoubtedly can be in living English.

Except he told it, who should know that he was Harrisson? de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 37 p. 401.

979. The following quotations show that the oblique forms are always used after *like* (*a*), although the word can be used as an undoubted conjunction (*b*).

a. Men — they're not like us.

Dane, Bill of Div., Brit. Pl. p. 694.

"Very likely they would have understood each other better if they had been a little older and wiser . . ."

"Like us?" says Sally.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 173.

b. One Clare Rossiter still reigned amongst the clouds, but there was now too another easy, fascinating, humorous creature who treated him almost like Alice Galleon herself¹⁾) — laughed at him, teased him, provoked him.

Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 3 p. 257.

980. We sometimes find the nominative although the grammatical character of the pronoun is quite evident, and would seem to require an oblique form. The case occurs in groups with *and*, *or*; it is chiefly the nominative *I* that is so used (*a*), rarely another pronoun (*b*).

a. And now, my dear, let you and I say a few words about this unfortunate affair. Trollope, *Framley* ch. 41.

I'm not that sort. It's far better for you and I to separate, and for me to go away and be happy for my last years with some one I really love.

John Hargrave, *Harbottle* ch. 1 p. 26.

Many a well-born and well-brought-up golden lad and lass, together with chimney-sweepers, say, "That's for you and I."

b. No worldly considerations, no fear of criticism or of consequences, neither prudence nor cowardice should stand between they two and fulfilment.

Kenealy, *Mrs. Grundy*.

981. The explanation of the construction in 980 *a* seems to be that the two coordinate pronouns form such a close group that they remain unaffected by their function in the sentence; this is all the more natural because the first element is *you*, i. e. a pronoun that does not distinguish the functions at all. It may also be, however, that *I*, which is always strong-stressed, is used as an independent (absolute) pronoun, like the oblique cases in 971. In the first quotation

1) i. e. as Alice Galleon did.

of 980 the construction may be the result of the character of *let*, which is an auxiliary of modality here.

Another case is the familiar phrase *between you and I*, which is probably the result of the conjunctival character of the correlative group *between ... and*¹⁾.

982. The use of the nominative and the oblique²⁾ as subjects of a verbal have been dealt with in the first volume.

The Genitive of Personal Pronouns

983. The genitives of the personal pronouns are generally classed as possessive pronouns. Their use is almost completely identical with that of the genitives of nouns, and both have been treated in the chapter on the genitive: 831 ff. Little need be added here.

984. The use of *her* as an oblique and as a genitive does not cause any inconvenience because the word-order sufficiently characterizes the two functions.

She put *her* arm round weeping Lottie and led *her*
away. Mansfield, Bliss p. 3.

985. The attributive genitives of the personal pronouns differ from those of nouns in being essentially proclitic. This is clearly shown by Sweet's phonetic transcriptions, where attributive *my* is [məi]; compare [main] *mine*.

This proclitic character explains why there is a special, strong, form when the pronouns are used without a noun after them, as 'independent' genitives. It is also the reason why coordination of two attributive genitives of pronouns, or of a pronoun and a noun genitive, is not very usual (*a*). Instead of *your and my affairs* colloquial English almost

1) For parallels in Romance languages, see Storm, *Engl. Phil.* p. 679, and Meyer-Lübke, *Rom. Syntax* § 62.

2) Not including 'em.

nvariably uses *your affairs and mine*. From the construction in these groups we must distinguish the case when a coordinate group that forms a unit serves as an adjunct to the following noun; these groups are really group-genitives, and the alternative just mentioned could not be used here (*b*).

a. I have never interfered in your or anyone else's affairs. Baroness von Hutten, *Flies* p. 73.

It was now his, not Christofano's wife who was the talk of Florence.

Marj. Bowen, *Carnival of Florence* III ch. 3 p. 311.

If we have any luck at all, your — and my — money is quite safe. Garvice, *Staunch* ch. 35 p. 250.

... listening with attention to Mrs. Batty's talk of her own and her son's ailments, ...

Gissing, *Salt of the Earth* p. 271.

b. There was a light in his and Anne's bedroom¹⁾. Galsworthy, *Swan Song* p. 262.

She went up into the bedroom on the second-floor, her and Sophia's old bedroom¹⁾.

Bennett, *Old W. T.* IV ch. 2 § 1.

The current construction is illustrated by these examples, quoted from Hardy, *Mayor of Casterbridge* (Wessex ed.): *the shame of her case and ours* (p. 85); *It is for your good and mine* (p. 168); *alike for her sake and for his own* (p. 347).

986. The proclitic character of the attributive genitive pronouns is such that they can be used as equivalents to the genitive suffix of nouns. This usage, very old and wide-spread in English dialects, is not part of standard English in any form.

There's Rachel and Cicely got no children; and Val's

1) One room is referred to.

out there — *that chap his father* will get hold of all he can. Galsworthy, In Chancery III ch. 8 p. 279.

Reflexive Use of the Oblique and the Genitive

Oblique Pronouns **987.** The oblique personal pronouns are used in prepositional adjuncts of place, to refer to the subject of the sentence.

He drew back the candle and closed the door softly behind him. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 § 5 p. 110.

The man seized Webb without saying a word, and pulled him after him through the woods.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 63.

The Committee was a singularly strong body, and it devoted to the task before it great care and enormous industry. Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 9.

Having done this, she stood in the middle of the floor, looking about her irresolute.

Allen, Bride of the Mistletoe.

All the forts and towns here marked had roads to them, even in the Welsh mountains.

Map in Trevelyan, Hist. of England.

988. These prepositions are construed in the same way when the local meaning is less prominent (*a*), or when the word is used in a transferred sense (*b*).

a. When the Angles and Saxons first came to Britain, they brought with them no written literature at all.

Delmer, Engl. Lit. p. 4.

The morning wind blew up the platform, the train rolled in; there were porters, but Mr. Zanti had only a big brown bag which he kept with him.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 § 4 p. 125.

Great art has always, or nearly always, in it a transitory element of contemporary fashion.

Bailey, Question of Taste p. 11.

b. You see, it was much of the same bigness; and it had the same quick light way with it.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 76.

989. Apart from these cases the oblique personal pronouns are not used 'reflexively', this function being served by the compounds with *-self*, *-selves*. It is naturally asked, therefore, what is the cause of the exceptional position of the prepositional adjuncts of place. In answer to this it has been observed that in these adjuncts the preposition has a stronger stress than the pronoun. And as the compounds in *-self* are primarily emphatic pronouns, the conclusion seemed warranted that the simple oblique pronouns are used here on account of their weak stress. It must be remarked, however, that the compound personal pronouns are also used in weak-stressed positions, and it will be shown that they are so used in prepositional adjuncts of place (1040). This makes it impossible to accept stress as the cause of the peculiar construction.

990. When we compare other languages we find the same exceptional position of adjuncts of place, e. g. in Dutch. And the Dutch reflexive of the third person, *zich*, is invariably weak-stressed.

Such an observation must induce us to study the character of these adjuncts; for the parallel development in two languages, which are independent of each other in this respect, even if related genealogically, can only be explained by assuming a general, not a special, cause. This general cause may perhaps be found in the not prominently reflexive character of the oblique pronouns in the prepositional adjuncts. It is true that the person (or thing) in the predicate is the same as that in the subject, but that in itself is not enough to establish a 'reflexive' relation. There is a reflexive relation only when subject and oblique are connected or identical in the mind of the person denoted by the subject. There is no

such connection in the sentences of 987: it is an outside observer that expresses the result of his observations. In the first sentence of 987 it might be possible to substitute *himself* for *him*; this would completely change the meaning of the sentence, and turn the author's observation in the text into a reflection of the person described. This difference will become clear when the prepositional adjuncts with compound pronouns (1027) are compared; see further the sections in which the functions of the two kinds of personal pronouns are contrasted (1038 ff.).

It must also be mentioned that the apparently reflexive use of the simple pronouns is not really restricted to the adjuncts of place. This appears from the following sentences.

He had the difficulty pointed out to *him*.

In its pages we have shown *us* the heart of a child awakening to puberty. See 590.

Genitive Pronouns **991.** The genitives of the personal pronouns are freely used reflexively; there is no alternative form in *-self*.

I have brought my money with me.

He succeeded his mother in 1901.

992. The difference in this respect between the obliques and the genitives is worthy of remark. It is not peculiar to English, many languages showing the same disregard of the formal distinction of the two meanings that the pronouns of the third person may express in this way. The cause seems to be that the genitive pronoun, expressing as it does a close, mostly personal, relation, is sufficient to suggest the relation to the subject, if the context or situation contributes to this interpretation. This accounts for the cumbersome repetition of the genitive *Peter's* in the following quotation.

So he tied Peter's arm to Peter's body with his neck
scarf¹⁾. Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. I p. 4.

Meaning of the Personal Pronouns

First Person

993. The genitive *my* is frequent in some forms of address, both in the polite *My lord*, and in the familiar *My boy, girl*; also in letters: *My dear John*. It is also used to refer to what has been mentioned as connected with the speaker or writer in some way.

It sounds nothing to hear, but it was hellish to see.
It wasn't like a man; it was like some damned Jugger-naut. I gave a view-holloa, took to my heels, collared
my gentleman, and brought him back.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll ed. Schutt p. 6. (See ib. p. 7 ff.).

Sometimes the second person is used in addressing persons, as in *Your Lordship, Your Grace, Your Majesty*. Note that all these nouns are abstract.

With regard to the 'plural' form *we, us, our, ours*, it must be pointed out that they are not really forms of the first person. They mean *I (me) and one or more others*, and are accordingly at the same time pronouns of the first and second persons (*I and you*), of the first and third persons (*I and he, or she, or it, or they*), or of all three. See 996.

994. The plural of the first person is sometimes used by a writer, or speaker, in order to suggest his association, real or imaginary, with others. This *plural of association* is frequently employed by authors who wish to associate their readers with them in general observations, or when considering the character of their hero or heroine; it is also

1) *His* refers to the subject of the sentence.

at the foundation of the much-criticized, but perfectly natural, 'editorial *we*'.

The day before us does not come back to us during our first cup of tea, . . .

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 167.

And so we see our Eustacia — for at times she was not altogether unlovable¹⁾ — arriving at that stage of enlightenment which feels that nothing is worth while . . .

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 7.

What else was she to say? What does one say in such a case? Our governesses teach us how pleasant and amiable an adornment is politeness, but not one of mine ever told me what I was to say when confronted by an announcement that I was to be included in somebody's prayers.

Elizabeth in Rügen.

995. A special case of the plural of association is its use by way of eliminating one's individuality. This is called the *plural of modesty*; it is current in familiar English.

"The question now is, what are we going to do next?" Which meant what was Vereker going to do next? and was understood by his hearers in that sense.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 38 p. 407.

"How strange you look out of uniform. I suppose that's a new suit?"

"Well, I could scarcely have got into my pre-war clothes. I weigh thirteen stone."

"Quite the heavy squire," said Sir John. "Come here and let's have a look at you."

Peter went over and stood before his father's chair — rather like a little boy.

Sheila Kaye-Smith, *End of the House of Allard* (T.) I § 3 p. 12.

Second person

996. When *you*, *your*, *yours* are used in a plural sense,

1) The parenthetic sentence shows that the plural is affective here.

they may refer at the same time to a third person and to the person or persons addressed. See 993.

The pronoun of the second person is used by authors, again in general observations, as in the case of the plural of the first person (994), but with this difference that the use of *you* excludes the author himself, frequently out of reserve (*a*). It is also used in such a general meaning that *one* might be substituted (*b*). The idea of number is entirely in the background, or completely absent.

a. She was an optimist constitutionally; for it is optimism to decide that it is "rather a lark" to breakfast by yourself when you have only just dried the tears you have been shedding over the loss of your morning companion. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 167.

b. He knew nothing of the machinery of the world. He was poor, and he had accepted it as axiomatic that poor people had to do work that was distasteful to them. He had no notion of what that work resulted in, or who profited by it. You went on working until you had enough to marry, and then you married and went on working until you died.

Gilbert Cannan, *Corner* ch. 10.

A library is a machine that requires a certain amount of skill to handle, if you are to elicit the best results.

Baker, *Uses of Libraries* p. 4.

"And you never asked about — the place with the door?" said Mr. Utterson.

"No, sir: I had a delicacy," was the reply. "I feel very strongly about putting questions. You start a question, and it's like starting a stone. You sit quietly on the top of a hill; and away the stone goes, starting others; . . ." Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 11.

You can train yourself to increased intellectual and moral energy as you can train yourself for physical efficiency in the playing-field¹⁾.

Haldane, *Addresses* p. 110.

1) As this is from an address, the singular form *yourself* proves that it is not a personal pronoun in its usual meaning.

The attributive *your* is sometimes closely related in function to the indefinite article, and differs from it in expressing the speaker's interest in the statement.

It is just possible, of course, that the greatest writers have never written; that the world is full of Monsieur Testes and mute inglorious Miltons, too delicate to come before the public. I should like to believe it; but I find it hard. Your great writer is possessed by a devil, over which he has very little control. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 7.

Putting aside men of genius, who may succeed by mere cosmic force, your successful man of letters is your skilful tradesman. Gissing, New Grub Street ch. 1.

Your true reformer is blandly unconscious of distinctions; he has no perception of proportions, no knowledge of values, in a word no sense of humour.

Eng. Rev., Feb. '14.

Third Person

997. In dealing with the functions or meanings of words in grammar we are accustomed to start from the strong-stressed uses of the word. This is natural and, indeed, necessary in many cases, because the weak-stressed uses are generally derivative. When we deal with form-words, however, this method would often reverse the true relation of things. The personal pronouns are among the words that show their fundamental character clearly only when they are weak-stressed. The strong-stressed uses are derivative and exceptional; many of them will be treated in the final chapter of this volume, because they are not genuine living English but part of the traditional store sometimes utilized by literary artists, and their imitators.

**Weak-stressed
Pronouns**

998. The weak-stressed pronouns of the third person can be used *deictically* and *anaphorically*. The weak 'em is used anaphorically only.

We say that a pronoun is used deictically when it

gives the first intimation of an idea; it is used anaphorically when it refers to a preceding mention of the idea. The distinction between the two functions seems to be as sharp-cut as any distinction can be. And yet, it may happen that we hesitate: thus in the following sentence *his toast and coffee* undoubtedly refer to the following word *Major*, and are consequently used deictically according to our definition; but it is also evident that *his* refers to the *idea of Major* that was present to the mind of the writer before, although the structure of the sentence causes the *word Major* to follow the pronoun. Similarly in the second quotation. See 1020.

Sally came to this conclusion as she poured out her tea, after despatching *his* toast and coffee to *the Major* in his own room.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 17 p. 167.

The fact that many people should be shocked by what *he* writes practically imposes it as a duty upon *the writer* to go on shocking them.

Huxley, *Vulgarity* p. 21.

For examples, both of the deictic and the anaphoric use of these pronouns, see the chapter on the *Gender of Nouns*.

Deictic Uses 999. The deictic uses may be classed as:

- (1) anticipatory;
- (2) indefinite;
- (3) equivalent to the pronoun of the second person;
- (4) formal (*it* only).

1000. The anticipatory and indefinite uses require little comment. The former occurs in sentences with an appended clause (*a*) of which some illustrations have been given in 430; the construction is fully treated in the chapter on sentence-structure in volume 3. The indefinite use

frequently refers to the public in general (*b*) but it is also found in general statements made with special reference to one or more persons (*c*).

a. Ah! it was worth while, this battle!

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 6 § 3 p. 74.

b. The *Cambridge Ancient History* has long since found its public, and it has come, as they say, to stay.

Hist. Rev. Jan. 1929 p. 118.

c. "I suppose there is a good deal of skating goes on about here?" — "Yes, they skate on the meadows; there are generally floods after Christmas."

Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 92.

1001. In affective speech the weak-stressed personal pronouns of the third person are used to address a person.

"If I said anything it was leopard, not negro. And as for sweeps and dustmen, they were merely parallel cases used as illustrations; and I don't think I deserve to have them raked up . . ." Miss Wilson is rather injured over this grievance, and Sally appeases her. "She shan't have them raked up, she shan't! But what was this row really about, that's the point? Is was yesterday morning, wasn't it?"

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 18 p. 177.

"I was wool-gathering."

"No — what *was* she thinking of?" For some reason the third person is thought more persuasive than the second.

ib. ch. 31 p. 330.

Some further examples in 924 (Shaw) and 934. Professor Grattan (*Rev. of English Studies* III 227) observes: "the polite use of the third person in address is not confined to America; with us, however, it expresses the speaker's conscious attitude of social inferiority." The quotations above no doubt owe their affective value to this implication of inferiority or subordination.

1002. The anticipatory *it* leads by almost imperceptible stages to the purely formal *it*. There is no need to

classify each use rigidly into one of the two divisions; it will be more instructive to show the various uses, starting from those in which the anticipatory function can be recognized by logical reasoning, which does not mean, naturally, that the word is really anticipatory rather than formal *it* in the grammatical structure of the sentence.

1003. We find this *it*:

- (1) when the predicative word (verb, adjective or noun) is qualified by a verb stem with *to*, a verbal ing, or by a clause;
- (2) when a verb that is construed with an object and predicative adjunct is qualified by a verb stem with *to*, an ing, or a clause.

In these cases it is usual to speak of a *provisional it*; on the structure of these sentences, see vol. 3 (*Simple Sentence*).

a. It would be difficult to better this description.

It only remains to make the necessary acknowledgements most rightly customary in all anthologies.

Praise of Oxford II, Preface.

It's nonsense thinking her so ill as that.

Gaskell, Wives I 289.

The dazzling consideration was whether it would make the least difference being distantly connected with them by marriage.

Cotes, Cinderella p. 251.

It is clear that you did not want to do the work.

To this of course it is replied that the provision of further postal facilities ... need not cost much. Pilot.

It lived also in the child's memory that they had come away from Portsea in the snow. Forster-Gissing.

b. The fog made it difficult to calculate the distance.

They believe it their duty to look after the morals of those who live on their property.

Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 6 p. 64.

You must find it rather dull living here all by yourself.

Sweet, Element. p. 80.

He thought it well that Mr. Jenkins should get out of the way of dropping in whenever he heard the piano.

Sidgwick, Severins p. 75.

This is a mistake which I deem it necessary to point out.

This book contains much important matter which makes it the duty of all Homeric students to read it.

Times Lit. 27/1, '16.

It would be premature to take it for granted that these different types could not be combined in a higher unity.

ib. 25/12, '19.

On the other hand, more than twenty headmasters gave it as their opinion that no great change would result.

Edinb. Rev., Oct. 1905, p. 442.

We mention them because from their nature they make it clear that this is not the kind of work which a pessimist would expect to emerge from a competitive trial.

Athenaeum.

Further examples will be found in the sections dealing with the stem and the verbal ing in the first volume (87, 98, 219, 298, 394 ff.). The construction is treated as a whole in the chapter on the *Simple Sentence* in volume 3.

1004. The provisional *it* is also used in this construction when the clause is introduced by *if* or *when*.

Do you think the girls would consider it narrow if I asked them to stop that dancing and whooping?

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 3 p. 31.

Till the storm (viz. of coughing) had subsided and a new dose of the sedative had been given, Sally and old Jack stood waiting in sympathetic pain — you know what it is when you can do nothing.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 24 p. 246.

1005. Sometimes a clause or noun may *logically* be considered as a subject, but also as the object of an infinitive in the sentence.

How successful she has been, would require an elaborate essay to explain.

The enthusiasm that was caused by her song and behaviour would be vain to describe.

Here the words in italics are *grammatically* the subjects of the two sentences. But *logically* they might also be considered as the objects to the verbs *to explain*, *to describe*; they would become objects *grammatically* if we inserted *it* (*How successful she has been it* would require an elaborate essay to explain).

Compare also the following quotations (all without *it*).

Whether the change ministers to the comfort of those whom it most influences is hard to say.

Pilot 14/5, 1905 p. 458/1.

What the little party at the vicarage would have been like if John's presence had not animated it, would be hard to say¹⁾. Crawford, Tale ch. 18.

From the first he designated Lanfranc for the highest ecclesiastical office which was his to bestow.

Wakeman, Introduction p. 85.

Perhaps this last defect is that which is most difficult of all to determine. Athenaeum, 28/12, '12.

(This) would involve a discrimination of the factors of production which is not easy to make in all instances.

Montgomery, Problems I p. 29.

1006. The construction with *it*, however, seems to be the more usual one.

A more heinous offence against the State, short of actual treason, it is hard to imagine. Times W. 9/3, '17.

A more complete antagonism between Church and State it is not possible to imagine.

How far Cards might have helped him here it is difficult to say. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 6 § 3 p. 69.

1) The provisional *it* would be inconvenient here as it would follow after the anaphoric *it*.

How far it was possible or desirable to refer to other books, instead of loading a history of literature with summaries of political events, it is not easy to decide.

Athenaeum 29/2, 1908.

That the British subject named by us in our review of April 18th was a thorn in the side of Marquis Ito, it is hardly necessary to prove. ib. 23/3, 1908.

1007. The twofold analysis is not always possible. In relative clauses, and in some other cases, front-position of the object makes the use of *it* obligatory.

I may be able to illustrate one point of view, which, as I believe, it is desirable that literary histories should take into account more distinctly than they have generally done.

Here, clearly, we have a psychological situation which it would be fascinating to analyse.

Times Lit. 12/10, '16.

Mrs. Walsingham had said what it was necessary to say.

Mrs. Sidgwick, Severins, ch. 20.

This spell it was Clive's business to break.

1008. The provisional *it* is essentially the same as *it* in the phrase *it is (was)* prefixed to a sentence for emphasizing some part of it. The construction will be dealt with from the point of view of sentence-structure in volume 3.

It was Trenor himself who frightened her.

Wharton, House of Mirth p. 113.

It is only at its south-eastern end that this country approaches the main-land.

If ever two men presented a contrast it is you and he.

“Are you quite mad, Selma?” he asked.

“Mad? No. It is they who are mad to let you go...”

Mrs. Sidgwick, Severins ch. 27.

It is to Ancient Germany that we must look for the earliest traces of our forefathers, for the best part of almost all of us is originally German.

Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 3.

As each town has its characteristic features and peculiar advantages, we may ask what it is that constitutes the special attraction exerted by the City of York.

York p. 5.

1009. *It* is unquestionably formal as the grammatical subject of verbs expressing the phenomena of the weather, also in groups with nouns.

It rains; it's raining.

It blew a gale.

On the use of *there* in apparently identical sentences (*there was a violent storm*), see volume 3 (*Sentence-Structure*).

1010. The use of *it* in 1003 b is the effect of the necessity to keep the verb and predicative adjunct together; they cannot be separated by a long interval such as would be caused by the entrance of a verb stem with its adjuncts or of a clause. The connection of verb and predicative adjunct may be so close that they are used without any *it*: *to think fit*. In such a case the closeness of the syntactic group is increased by a somewhat weaker stress on the verb, causing the group to approach the character of a compound.

Yet no writer has of late thought fit to deal fully and exclusively with this subject. Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

To this end the Jesuit thought proper to remove him from the immediate attendance on the Queen.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 5 p. 63.

Until he sees fit to publish his results.

Wells, Country p. 445.

Mr. Gregory makes plain to us that from whatever point of view we regard science, she is beautiful and good ...

Times Ed. S. 4/7, '16.

The following quotations show the twofold use in the same group in living English.

He thought it right to call soon afterwards.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 15.

Sir Ralph was devoted to girls: his love for his own little daughter had been so great he had often thought right to 'dissemble' lest his boys should regard her as his favourite. Mem. Verney Fam. III 60.

1011. The provisional *it* is also found when the verb is construed with an object in the form of a stem with *to* or a clause, and a prepositional adjunct that may perhaps be interpreted as a predicative adjunct. In this case *it* is used even when verb and adjunct are practically compounds, as in the two last of the following quotations.

He began the modern theory of the practical value of art, but left it to others to work it out.

Times Lit. 15/2, 18.

You cannot fail to make friends with many who will have it in their power to be of great use to you.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 20 p. 206.

Mrs. Gibson took it into her head that she could reinstate herself. Gaskell, Wives II, 263.

1012. The provisional *it* is invariably used when verbs with a prepositional object are followed by an object in the form of a clause.

Sometimes he used to vex Roger by insisting upon it that Molly was prettier than Cynthia.

Gaskell, Wives II, 147.

We must see to it that the eleventh million and the twelfth, and as many as have to be called for, are no laggard successors to those which have been already spent.

Times W. 26/4, '18.

We may rely upon it that we shall not improve upon the classification adopted by the Greeks.

M. Arnold, Essays in Criticism II, 137.

1013. It may be pointed out that the construction with the provisional *it* sometimes suggests a special meaning

of the verb. Thus *to insist upon* in the quotation in the preceding sentence means *to declare repeatedly*; in its usual meaning (when it expresses *will*) *to insist upon* takes a verbal ing¹⁾. Compare also the two following sentences.

You may depend upon it that what I say is true.

That was the worst of Graham in England; you never could depend upon his taking things as he was meant to take them. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 7 p. 79.

In the first, *to depend upon* it means *to be sure*, in the second *to depend upon* is equivalent to *rely upon*, *count upon*. In this last meaning the prepositional object with stem is also used²⁾. See 115, 122, 413.

She can depend on you to hold your tongue.

Shaw, Arms and the Man Act II.

**Anaphoric
Uses** 1014. The pronouns of the third person are very frequently used anaphorically; they refer to a word (or idea), also to a sentence (or thought) that precedes. The anaphoric use of the singular pronouns has been treated in the chapter on *Gender*, as far as they refer back to nouns and pronouns. The pronoun *one* usually has *he*, *him* and *his* for its correlative (*a*); on the use of *one* and *one's*, see the sections on the indefinite pronoun *one*. The second quotation shows *it* referring to a sentence (*b*). See also 987 ff. on the reflexive pronouns.

a. No one, therefore, can really study any particular period of history unless he knows a great deal about what preceded it and what came after it.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. XXII.

1) It is also possible to use *to insist* (without a preposition) and a subordinate clause: *I insisted that he should accompany us*.

2) This construction would not be possible in the case of the last instance of 1012.

b. They are trying to find a suitable house. — They will find it difficult.

1015. When the subject precedes in the form of a clause there is generally no anaphoric pronoun (*a*). But sometimes anaphoric *it* is used, especially when the clause is so long that it is desirable to resume the thread of the construction (*b*); this is essentially restricted to literary English.

a. That he was right wants no proof.

That he had closely studied the ‘Divina Commedia’
is evident. Edinb. Rev.

Where Mr. Swinburne’s book is invaluable is in his interpretation of poetry as poetry, of symbolism as poetry, of pictorial design as poetry.

Athenaeum, 11/8, 1906.

b. That Keats often abused both these classes of adjective, that both abound in poetry of the second rank, and that both are snares to eloquent young poets, it is beyond question. Rannie in Essays III.

1016. With some verbs *it* is used as an object without referring to anything in particular, although it cannot be said to be entirely void of meaning. Thus, in *to fight it out* the pronoun refers, though vaguely, to some thought like *question*, *problem*, *difficulty*. When a servant declares that she is going to *chuck it*, the pronoun may be thought of as referring to her *work*, or *duties*, though neither of these words has been mentioned, and neither is clearly in her mind. The function of *it* is similar in the following examples.

Six thousand pounds at four and a half per cent, settled so that their mother couldn’t “blue it”, would give them a certain two hundred and fifty pounds a year — better than beggary.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 54.

But didn’t you — if you can look back so far —

didn't you, when the first child came, funk it? Your responsibility, I mean.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 6 § 2 p. 303.

Mr. Romfrey wished to have it out with his nephew.

Meredith, Beauchamp ch. 36 p. 334.

Down the long wide vista of the Cromwell Road, Kensington, the fog had it all its own way.

Corelli, Cameos p. 6.

Let him have it hot.

Punch, 27/7, 21.

1017. Sometimes *it* has no meaning at all, so that it may be called a *formal object*, although it is usually possible to find a vague reference. Thus, in *to rough it* we may say that *it* vaguely refers to the idea *life*. It is common with converted nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

Oh, hang it, my umbrella has blown inside out.

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 36.

"What sort of hols¹⁾?"

"Oh, pretty rotten! Got nothing for Christmas at all except a measly knife or two — governor played it awfully low down."

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 4 § 3 p. 45.

He would have to pitch it strong in his speech at the general meeting. Galsworthy, Caravan p. 67.

"That's going it." — "I mean to go it."

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 15.

She had been a toast, and queened it accordingly.

Cannan, Corner p. 3.

The typist loses the strained hard expression she wears as a rule, and her eyes become soft and limpid, her lips tremulous and womanly. She dons her freshest blouse and shadiest hat, and with her girl friend tubes it to Hampstead or trams it to Kew, there to forget for a while the carking cares of business.

Everyman, 28/2, '13.

1) Schoolboy slang for *holidays*.

To hotel it, and inn it, and pub. it.

Jerome, Three Men p. 24.

¹⁾ "By Jove! this comes it strong. Fancy the snipocracy here — eh?" Meredith, Harrington ch. 14 p. 153.

1018. Whereas *it* in *to fight it out*, etc., is standard English, the formal *it* in the preceding examples is very colloquial, or vulgar, often jocular.

"We are going it," she remarked appreciatively.

"Don't be vulgar!" ordered Miss Ladbrook.

Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 3 p. 65.

1019. Formal *it* is also found in prepositional adjuncts.

We are in for it. There is nothing for it but to submit. He was hard put to it for an answer. To have a good time of it. To make a clean breast of it. —

The fat and the lean of it, old Jolyon called these brothers. Galsworthy, *Property* ch. I.

The Court commiserated him, but couldn't give him any relief. So he made a bolt of it. And he's never been heard of since, as far as I know.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 7 p. 62.

Her manner to me plainly indicated that though Graham might be, under the circumstances, a very good thing, he was in himself enough of it.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 22 p. 236.

1020. In the following cases it seems difficult to decide whether *it* is the anaphoric (formal) object, or the provisional *it*. Compare 998.

He would have it he wanted Graham in the business.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. I p. 7.

He will have it that Hamlet suffers from mental disorder. Times Lit. 18/5, 22.

It is to Italy that we owe it that Europe is not still the home of wandering barbarous and predatory tribes.

Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

We cannot help it if our father thinks it too dangerous, can we?

We should prefer to put it that it is possible to do both.

Times W. 16/8, '18.

1021. The use of *it* and *its* in constructions with the participle, the stem with *to*, and the ing, have been illustrated in the first volume; see the sections on the object with participle, the plain or prepositional object with stem, and the subject with ing.

**Strong-Stressed
Uses** **1022.** The strong-stressed pronouns are also used deictically and anaphorically, but neither of these functions is frequent in spoken English. The exclusively literary uses will be dealt with in the chapter on Literary English.

The deictic use of the strong stressed pronouns is restricted to the emphatic demonstrative meaning, when somebody must be pointed out: in this meaning *it* is not used. But *it* can occur strong-stressed to point to something unique.

Who will go? — He and I.

This book is absolutely it.

"I say I'm awfully sorry to have brought you to such a dud show, old thing. Bobby Simpson told me only the other day that this place was absolutely 'it.'"

Punch, 10 June 1931 p. 630.

1023. The anaphoric pronouns are strong-stressed when there is a contrast to be expressed. In this case we also find *it* used, although it is probably literary rather than spoken English.

To this cause he lent all his faculties. For it he concocted verses, for it he made speeches, for it he scintillated the brightest sparks of his quiet wit.

Trollope, *Barchester Towers*.

The author served afloat throughout the war, being engaged chiefly on the blockade of the mouth of the Mississippi; but he makes no attempt to supply a consecutive account of the operations. Of them he has already written elsewhere. *Athenaeum* 1/2, 1908.

When we fall asleep, we do not lay aside the thoughts of the day, as the hand its physical work; nor upon awakening return to the activity of these as it to the renewal of its toil, finding them undisturbed.

Allen, *Mettle of the Pasture*.

They are not to be had by a bit of worm on the end of a hook . . . not they¹⁾. Jerome.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Forms 1024. The compound personal pronouns have the following forms:

	Singular	Plural
1 st person	ma'self <i>myself</i>	aʊə'selvz <i>ourselves</i>
2 nd "	juə'self <i>yourself</i>	juə'selvz <i>yourselves</i>
	Masc. him'self <i>himself</i>	
3 rd "	Fem. hə'self <i>herself</i>	ðəmselvz <i>themselves</i>
	Neuter it'self <i>itself</i>	

1025. The compound personal pronouns are essentially reflexive. In some cases the reflexive function is not quite evident, although it can be shown to be the correct interpretation. When they are used as emphatic adjuncts to nouns, there is no reflexive use.

1) On this type of sentence, compare *Sentence-Structure (Appended Sentences)* in vol. 3.

1026. The compound personal pronoun is plainly reflexive, and also emphatic, when it serves as a predicate in a nominal sentence.

On that occasion Flaubert was superbly himself.

Times Lit. 27/1, 16.

He even regrets sometimes that he had not been born a few centuries earlier, when England was itself, and had its peculiar manners and customs.

1027. The pronouns can be part of the predicate of a verbal sentence; in this case they are also reflexive, but may be emphatic (*a*) or unemphatic (*b*) when they are used:

(1) as a direct object.

a. She could not be much good to him even if she found him. It was her first duty to save herself.

Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 3 § 9 p. 69 f.

He has imagined these characters, we feel, because of some need in his personal life; he has clothed them with his own thoughts, we say, in order to understand himself.

Times Lit. 20/12, 1928 p. 997/2.

He saw Henry Galleon . . . and he saw himself, Peter Westcott, learning at last from the Master the rule and discipline of life.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 8 § 3 p. 324.

Having filled both ourselves and our water-bottles as full as possible, we started off again.

Rider Haggard, Solomon's Mines.

Michael, although Stella was more of a tie than a companion, was shocked to hear that she would not accompany Miss Carthew and himself to Eastbourne for the summer holidays.

Sinister Street p. 159.

b. I can dress and wash myself in half an hour.

Those would have been the fitting words for the expression of her ladyship's ideas; but she remembered herself, and did not use them.

Trollope, Framley ch. 15 p. 146.

The sextette came to an end and the six musicians

sat, for a moment, silent on their chairs whilst they dragged themselves into the world that they had for a moment forsaken. Walpole, *Fortitude* II ch. 3 p. 173.

Examples in the object-with-verbal constructions have been given in the first volume: 60, 107 f., 253, 285.

(2) in prepositional adjuncts.

a. Gradually the villagers came to look on him as a being superior rather than inferior to themselves.

Athenaeum 14/3, 1908.

She bounded away to the garden to her aunt, of whom, perhaps, she was more truly fond than of anyone in the world except herself. Allen, *Choir Invisible*.

Never mind others; speak for yourself.

And why would he keep looking up at herself?

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 37.

All people, as we suppose, lead two lives, more or less — their outer life that of the world of action, and an inner life they have all to themselves.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 26 p. 287.

b. Mrs. Damer won for herself considerable reputation in the latter part of the eighteenth century as the first lady sculptor.

1028. Some clearly reflexive uses are necessarily unemphatic. The pronoun serves:

(1) as part of a 'reflexive verb' forming an inseparable group. See volume 3 on the *Simple Sentence*.

I availed myself of the opportunity.

He betook himself to his bed without delay.

(2) as an indirect object.

He has given himself a great deal of trouble over it.

If a contrast must be expressed an adjunct with *to* is used.

(3) as a plain adjunct of benefit.

He very slowly proceeded to make himself his evening meal. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 13 p. 156.

They were settlers who built themselves huts and cleared a piece of land in the commons or woods, at some distance from the village.

Hammond, Village Labourer p. 7.

If a contrast must be expressed an adjunct with *for* is used.

1029. The reflexive pronouns refer to the dominant idea of the sentence or part of the sentence, not necessarily to its grammatical subject.

The Government has allowed *the disputants* the fullest possible time to come to terms of *themselves*.

Daily News, 21/20, 12.

When youth desired to become personal, or middle age showed a tendency to grow silly, she chilled them alike, and had the art to leave *them* not angry with her, but with *themselves*. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 2.

That is a deep and wide saying, that no miracle can be wrought without faith — without the *worker's* faith in *himself*, as well as the recipient's faith in him¹⁾.

1030. In adjuncts with *between* and *among* the pronoun is used in a reciprocal sense, so that it is equivalent to *each other*.

There was a scanty congregation, consisting for the most part of peasant women who, during the religious ceremonies, whispered much among themselves ...

Buchanan, That Winter Night.

I believe they will choose the latter course; that is to say they will continue to co-operate between themselves, instead of fighting between themselves.

Everyman, 15/11, 12.

The interpretation is somewhat doubtful in the following quotation: the opposition between Saxons and Britons is

1) It has been explained (833) that the relation of a genitive and its leading noun is that of subject and predicate of a verbal sentence.

perhaps more prominent in the mind of the writer than the reciprocal relations amongst the Saxons.

The Saxons came as an invading and colonizing army, bringing their wives and children with them. They seized the land from the Britons and distributed it amongst themselves.

Salzman, Engl. Life in the Middle Ages p. 41.

1031. In some cases the reflexive function of the pronouns is not quite evident, although real. As in the case when there is an evident reference to the grammatical subject (1026 f.) the pronoun may be a nominal predicate, an object, or a prepositional adjunct.

"What do you mean?" asked the bishop's friend.

"I mean," returned the bishop with a smile, "that that poor boy was myself."

The difficulties which their fathers then met are the same as those which confront themselves. Times Lit. 22/6, 17.

How could a man who carried about with him on his travels a game¹⁾ be expected to remember herself?

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives I p. 32.

Mrs. Woodward's family consisted of herself and three daughters. Trollope, Three Clerks p. 122.

Then she left Molly to herself.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 231.

1032. The compound pronouns can also form part of the predicate of a sentence to emphasize the idea expressed by the subject-pronoun.

If you wish a thing done well you must do it yourself.

Henry's jurymen were themselves witnesses to the fact. Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 160.

In written English the word-order is often changed, the compound pronoun following immediately after the subject-pronoun, so as to bring out the close connection between the two. This word-order is natural in logical reasoning,

1) i. e. golf-clubs.

but is less common in colloquial English. The use of *itself* in the first quotation may be called artificial.

How the European will be able to hold his own against it (*viz.* the minute and subtle economical and utilitarian character of the Chinese) and how it itself will deal with large problems are absorbing questions.

Times W.

Probably he reckoned that, whoever wore the crown in Wessex and on the banks of the Thames, they themselves would continue to enjoy virtual independence as Earls of Mercia and Northumbria.

Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. p. 118.

His laugh curled round his sentences as if he himself enjoyed their humorous exaggeration.

Times Lit. 9/2, 1928.

All round him, his fellow-members were chattering. Only he himself, the old sick member, was silent.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 41.

Peter felt that he himself was growing smaller and smaller. Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 2 § 4 p. 254.

Worst of all there will come to you terrible hours when you yourself know of a sure certainty that your work is worthless. ib. p. 254.

Margaret could be pleasant to anybody, but this intruder would soon find that she herself was loyal to the absent. Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 37.

1033. The latter construction of 1032 is also found with relative *who*; it is naturally impossible when the clauses are connected by the conjunction *that*.

I heard it from a lady who herself was present.

1034. The compound pronoun that immediately follows after a pronoun-subject is inevitably taken as part of the subject. It thus serves as an adjunct to the subject, and has no reflexive meaning. This is frequently the case when the compound pronoun serves to emphasize a noun, which may be any part of the sentence.

Wormwood himself could not have succeeded better.

Bulwer, Pelham ch. 11 p. 26.

The story of the creation told by Moses is simplicity and sobriety itself when compared with them.

1035. The use of the compound pronoun to emphasize a pronoun that is not the subject of the sentence is rare.

At times one needed a rest from Leslie. But outside the province of art and the pleasures of the eye he was lovable, even likeable, having here a self-dependence and a personality that put pathos far off, and made himself a rest.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 4 p. 55.

"Oh, John," she said, "do you think it is right — for you yourself?" Crawford, Tale of a Lonely Parish, last ch.

We have a different case when the compound pronoun serves as an appended element of the sentence.

She hardly dared to take him to task, himself.

Trollope, Framley ch. 14 p. 132.

1036. The emphasis expressed by the compound pronouns usually serves to contrast two ideas. But sometimes it contrasts a person or thing with a more or less indefinite group; in the first of the following quotations *Mrs. B. herself* means *even Mrs. B.*, and similarly in the other sentences.

He¹⁾ gave up his weekly holiday to this business of friendship, and he must be allowed to conduct the business in his own way. *Mrs. Baines herself* avoided disturbing Mr. Critchlow's ministrations on her husband.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 2 § 1.

Mr. Selfridge himself must bow his head in admiration before such vigorous methods of advertisement.

Contemp. Rev. Oct. 1930 p. 501.

Old Frosted Moses and Dicky, and even men like Stephen, had seen ghosts so often, and Peter himself could tell odd stories about the Grey Hill.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 2 p. 15.

1) i. e. Mr. Critchlow.

... this was indeed Life, and Life such as the Bending Mule, Scaw House, and even Stephen's farm itself could not offer. ib. ch. 3 § 2 p. 32.

1037. The compound pronouns are finally used as subjects. There would seem to be no reflexive function possible in this case; but the restrictions of this use can only be understood when we assume that it is due to the association of the pronoun with the dominant idea of the sentence^{1).} We find it when the compound pronoun is:

(1) part of a group-subject.

Myself and my two brothers once owned a schooner.

One of our party and myself started on an expedition.

(2) a subject connected with a preceding subject by *as*, *like*, or *than*.

I am really astonished that such a useful industrious person as yourself should have been overcome by this suggestion.

Unfortunately his subordinates were less scrupulous than himself. Davis, Med. Europe p. 34.

His love of acting was stronger than himself.

Ward, Dickens p. 11.

Let us admit the truth: the greatness of great men is not always in their lives; it is perhaps the strangest thing of all that men's works are so much nobler than themselves. Times Lit. 20/12, 1928 p. 997/2.

Simple and Compound Personal Pronouns Compared

1038. The simple personal pronouns and the compounds in *-self* are both used with strong stress, serving apparently identical grammatical functions in the predicate. This may be shown by two sentences where the pronoun could be replaced by its alternative.

1) This explains why the compound pronoun in these cases may suggest the speaker's modesty, as in the cases under (1) here: association with a dominant partner inevitably leads to subordination.

a. Quinney was sensible of an ever-increasing exaltation and powers of speech which amazed *him* as much as the older man. Vachell, Quinneys' p. 15.

b. The Crescent, which was on the north side of Regent's Park, was not a sociable Crescent. The people living in it did not know each other; and at first none of them knew the Severins; but they all took some interest in persons who were outwardly so unlike *themselves*. Sidgwick, The Severins ch. I.

The difference between *a* and *b* depends on the standpoint of the writer. In the quotation under *a* the writer is an observer; he observes that something amazed Quinney, hence *him*. In the quotation under *b* the writer describes the thoughts of others, hence the reflexive *themselves, himself*.

1039. We see, consequently, that the compounds really express a different idea through their reflexive meaning. This explains why the simple pronouns with strong stress are used in the following quotations.

They may before long have to fight hard with competitors at least as able as they.

Times W. 31/12, 1909.

It was happy for the Rev. Amos Barton that he did not, like us, overhear the conversation.

Eliot, Scenes of Clerical Life.

Michael hoped this precaution would prevent at any rate the porters from commenting upon the freshness of him and his friend.

Sinister Street p. 499.

1040. On the other hand the compound forms are used in the prepositional adjuncts of place in the following quotations because the reflexive meaning must be expressed.

Lord Charles Beresford complained that the First Lord took executive as well as administrative functions upon himself.

Times.

We think it probable that they will succeed in the special aim they have put before themselves, though

only experience can prove the value of their book to the student for whom it is designed. Athenaeum.

Without any process of reasoning, he felt sorry for both of them¹⁾, and he was aware of a certain condescension in himself towards Ingpen.

Bennett, These Twain III ch. 20.

Plato gathered about himself in Athens a body of disciples. Goodspeed p. 195.

Compare 987 ff., especially 990.

1041. It must be pointed out that the compound pronouns, unlike the simple pronouns, have no corresponding genitive. This function, when contrast must be expressed, is served by the simple genitives with *own*: *his own words, an expression of his own*. See 849.

1042. The simple *self* is used as a noun with a possessive pronoun (*a*). In commercial (hence also in very colloquial or jocular) English it is used as part of a compound group (*b*).

a. Michael became his silent self again.

Sinister Street p. 83.

b. I am, dear Sirs, for self and partners, Yours most faithfully, Samuel Jackson.

Thackeray, Hoggarty Diamond ch. 6.

If a man says to me "Under the circs" I call it vulgarity. If a man says to me "For self and friend" I call it vulgarity.

Chesterton, Daily News.

INTERROGATIVE-RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Forms	1043.	hu <i>who</i>	wt̄ <i>what</i>	wit̄ <i>which</i>
		huz <i>whose</i>		
		hum <i>whom</i>		

1) Mr. Ingpen and a woman.

- Use 1044.** The best arrangement in dealing with the interrogative-relative pronouns seems to be to take each pronoun separately. We shall distinguish three functions:
- (1) interrogative;
 - (2) independent relative;
 - (3) anaphoric relative.

Who

1045. *Who* and its genitive *whose* are best treated together. The form *whom* is chiefly limited to written English, although schoolmasters are persistently labouring to revive the form in the spoken language; it is supposed to be required when the pronoun is a direct object or when it is used in a prepositional adjunct.

The pronoun refers to persons chiefly, and does not distinguish number, being used with a plural or with a singular predicative verb.

Who is used in the three functions mentioned in 1044.

Interrogative 1046. *Who* is used as a general (*a*) and as a special (*b*) interrogative, exclusively with reference to persons. *Who* can serve as a subject, a direct object, or as a prepositional adjunct¹⁾.

a. Who would think of such a possibility? I was going downstairs, when who should I meet but Betty's second-cousin. Gaskell, Cranford.

b. "Of course," said Sophia to Fossette, "she expects me to go to her, instead of her coming to me! And yet who's the busiest?"

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale IV ch. 1 § 5.

Doting Mother: "And whom [hu] do you love best, Daddy or Mummy?"

Johnny: "Daddy."

Punch.

1) It cannot be an indirect object because the pronoun has front-position; see the ch. on *Word-order* in volume 3.

Who of you three first thought of sending the feathers?
 Mason, Four Feathers (T.) I p. 253.

1047. The genitive *whose* generally refers to persons, although it might perhaps be used with reference to animals; see 833 ff.

The form *whom* is probably the regular form when used in a prepositional adjunct that opens the sentence (*a*). But in spoken English the preposition would be at the end, and *who* would be used here, as in all other cases (*b*).

a. On whom can we count for certain?

b. "Whom did you see?" is correct, but there is something false about its correctness¹⁾.

Sapir, Language p. 168.

Every sensible English-speaker on both sides of the Atlantic says *Who were you talking to?* and the sooner we begin to write it the better. Greig, Priscian p. 23.

1048. It is supposed by schoolmasters that the form *whom* 'ought to be used' when it at the same time serves as an object to a predicative verb and refers to the accompanying stem or clause. As *who* is the only possible form in real English the 'problem' does not exist for students of language²⁾.

Who did you say was going?

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 43 p. 465.

1) i. e. it is artificial: in other words, it is incorrect, in the true sense of the word.

2) If grammar were a game of logic it would be possible for an 'ingenious grammarian' to argue that we 'should' write (or say!): *Whom do you think they have appointed?* but *Who do you think has been appointed?* For the answers to these questions would respectively be *Him* and *He!*

This would-be scholarship leads to sentences like the following: *Whom was that you were speaking with, Sir Ector?*

(John Erskine, Galahad ch. 7 p. 51).

No, this is too insolent altogether. Who do you
imagine I am? Mansfield, Bliss p. 90.

1049. Closely related, and essentially identical, is *who* in exclamatory sentences.

After all, Monica with her glinting evanescence was just as beautiful as Margaret, and even more mysterious, and if she only would not be so frightening to young men, who would not fall in love with her!

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 32.

1050. *Who* (*whose, whom*) are used as Independent independent relatives in noun-clauses (*a*), and Relative in adverb clauses opening with a plain stem (*b*); see 188. What has been said of interrogative *whom* applies also to this use.

a. It is quite uncertain who will be able to come.

It is much in the king's power to summon whom he will, to take the advice of whom he will.

Maitland, Constit. Hist. p. 163.

Considering where the school stands, whose eyes are upon it, and what its devoted staff has, under most adverse conditions, already accomplished, it is a matter of real national importance that a future exempt from restriction and anxiety should be definitely assured to it.

Times Ed. S. 7/11, 18.

Mr. Slope turned over in his mind whether it would be well for him to tell this termagant at once that he should call on whom he liked.

Trollope, Barchester ch. 17.

I would have given anything to know who he was thinking of. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 8.

There was a longer fight about who should be king. Goodspeed, History.

b. Deny it who may, there is a wickedly Lucretian satisfaction in idly watching. Eng. Rev. April 1915.

I always felt that, talk with whom I would, I left something unsaid which was precisely what I most wished to say.
Rutherford, Autobiogr. p. 24.

On *whom* in prepositional adjuncts with a stem with *to*, see 235.

1051. The relative noun-clause can also precede the main clause. In spoken English this order is found in dependent questions (*a*); in the literary language it is extended to other uses (*b*).

- a.* Who will be able to come is quite uncertain.
- b.* Who only knows the country in spring, summer, and autumn is no country lover. Times W. 22/2, 18.

Whom they (i. e. Stevenson's books) shall influence, he has influenced. Pilot 26/10, 1901.

The two quotations under *b* show that *who* in this function may be generalizing (or indefinite) as in the first example, and individualizing as in the second.

Generalizing *who* is frequently used after *as* in comparative clauses. The usage is exclusively literary.

"Really?" replied Mr. Povey, with loftiness, as who should say: "What an extraordinary thing that a reasonable creature can have such fancies!"

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II ch. 1 § 2.

Anaphoric Relative 1052. *Who* (*whose*, *whom*) are used to refer to personal antecedents in all kinds of attributive clauses (*a*), including the apparent attributive clauses (*b*).

The use of relative *whose* and *whom* agrees with the interrogative uses: 1045 ff. *Who* is used in the function of a subject only, not as a predicate (1079).

- a.* It belonged to my servant Bannister, a man who

has looked after my room for ten years, and whose honesty is absolutely above suspicion.

Charmian looked at Claude Heath, who was silent.

Hichens, Ambition ch. 2 p. 23.

A gentleman who had travelled in Africa told his friends that he and his servant once made fifty wild Arabs run. All who heard the story were amazed.

A benevolent tutor whose reform from an unfortunate weakness was so delicately brought about.

Athenaeum, 6/1, 12.

There must be somebody to whom he might talk, to whom he might explain exactly why this occasion was of so stirring an importance.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrexham I ch. 1.

There comes back to me a bowed and uncouth figure whom one used to see in the cathedral procession on a Sunday. Mrs. H. Ward, Harper's Mag. May 1918.

b. Everyone was fond of the poor old woman; but it was Molly who had no fear of her at all.

Moore, Untilled Field p. 248.

The Great Spirit gave these hunting-grounds to us his children, and it is the pale-face who intrudes upon them, *who* comes here without any right.

But it is Southey for whom Bagehot reserves his fiercest wrath. Times Lit. 29/7, 15.

1053. *Who* is also found when the antecedent is the name of an animal. See 931.

(We heard) the trotting of horses, who were evidently approaching rapidly.

B. M. Croker, Serpent's Tooth (T.) p. 26.

The saucer for the bigger dog, who would have made two of Spot, was not half full.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 1.

1054. Anaphoric *whom* occurs in prepositional adjuncts to connect a verbal stem with a noun denoting a person. See 235.

These were excellent fellows from whom to accept a cigarette or sometimes even an invitation to lunch at a Soho restaurant. Sinister Street p. 299.

1055. The use of *whom* being largely artificial (1045 ff), it is natural that *who* should be used sometimes either by writers who refuse to modify genuine English in obedience to traditional rules founded on ignorance, or by those who are willing to conform to them but in whom nature is occasionally stronger than the memory of school teaching (*a*). On the other hand we find *whom* where the pronoun is really in the subject-relation, but may seem to be an object in an object-with-stem construction (*b*).

a. I must place first Dr. W. W. Greg and Professor A. W. Pollard who I fear I must frequently have wearied by innumerable questions and appeals for their advice on points of difficulty, and who have very kindly read the book—either in MS. or in proof.

McKerrow, Introduction to Bibliography, Pref. VII.

b. The young person whom she regretted to hear was a Dissenter. Kenealy, Mrs. Grundy p. 96.

1056. We find a similar use of *whom* when a verb is construed with a subordinate clause (*a*), and even, though not in careful writing, when there is a clearly parenthetic clause (*b*).

a. We know that all will understand it whom we care should do so.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 41 p. 453.

Ten or eleven years ago — it can hardly be more — a note from Mr. Yeats served to introduce a new acquaintance, whom he said had shared adventures with a brother of the present writer's in America.

Everyman 20/12, 12.

A contributor whom I knew possessed a decided talent for circumlocution found (on his Ms. being returned with the proof) his article so transformed that his claims to be the author were certainly dubious. ib.

I assure you, Stella has not been for an instant absent from me, except yesterday morning when she went to Thermae Museum with Martha, whom you know has proved by twenty-five years of faithful service that she can be completely trusted.

Elinor Glyn, *The Contrast and other Stories* 1913, p. 154.

b. But here was a woman whom he was convinced, absolutely adored him, and who yet proposed to release him without reproaches ... ib. p. 12.

What

1057. *What* is used in two ways:

- (1) as an interrogative;
- (2) as an independent relative.

1058. *What* is used when asking after **Interrogative** things in general (*a*), but also as a special interrogative, with reference to a definite number (*b*). The subject *what* has a singular predicate. In connection with such verbs as *to avail, care, matter, signify, what* is an adverb rather than an object¹⁾; it is clearly an adverb in the last sentence under *a*.

a. What has caused all this disturbance?

What had been happening to her in that room?

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 7 § 2 p. 79.

What does seven and eight make?

What is the half of twelve?

What are the commonest forms of nerve injuries amongst our soldiers? Times Lit.

What was Italy's position in the Trentino at the end of last summer's campaign? Times Lit. 1/8, 16.

What was Livingstone's Christian name?

Then, my dear child, what *on earth* are you doing here? Chapin, *New Morality*, Brit. Pl. p. 537.

What do you call such a triangle?

1) Cf. the same use of other pronouns, e. g. *all, nothing*.

What do we, as a nation, care about books?
Ruskin, *Sesame*.

What the better are they for that as souls or as citizens or any other way?

Conan Doyle, *Strand Mag.* Aug. 1925 p. 113/2.

b. "Now," said Brum to him, "what is it to be? Shall we ride this train without interference, or shall we have a wrestling bout up here, when the first fall must be our last? Speak!"

Davies, *Super-Tramp* ch. 6 p. 44.

1059. *What* is used to refer to persons, but only as a reflex to *it*, serving to identify (*a*). It can also refer to a person in a disparaging way (*b*); see 924.

a. "Please, ma'am, it's only fair to say, but it's not Miss Bessie."

"What is not Miss Bessie? I mean, who is not Miss Bessie?"

"Her as is spying on me" ¹⁾.

Baring-Gould, in *Swaen* I p. 5.

b. "Do you know her well?" asked Michael, for Clara's tone was not promising.

"Oh! we know her for a crank," said Clara.

"What sort of crank?"

"Well — the sort that takes up with impossible people — you really never know WHAT ²⁾ you may meet in Agnes Hyde's rooms. I should recommend you to take your sister away from her."

Mrs. Sidgwick, *The Severins* ch. 16.

1060. *What* is also used attributively, as an adjunct to nouns denoting persons and things generally (*a*), or with reference to a definite number (*b*).

a. What rich man is not poor in some respect; what poor man is not rich in another?

Vachell, *Brothers* II ch. 9 p. 80.

1) A ghost.

2) Printed thus in the original.

What English poets can you name?

What girl would not have done so, under her circumstances? de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 44 p. 486.

What wife would tolerate this practice?

Strand Mag. Febr. 1925 p. 157/1.

In what direction did he go?

What elements are contained in water?

For what exploit did Lieutenant Forshaw get the V. C.?

Times Lit. 1/8, 16.

b. In determining what plays and poems are Sheridan's and what are spurious he takes, on the whole, the most generous view that he may. *Times Lit.* 3/1, 29 p. 1.

1061. To ask after the quality of persons or things *what sort of*, *what manner of*, *what kind of*, are used. See the sections on the *Indefinite Article*.

What sort of a man is he to see?

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 12.

What sort of weather are we going to have? — It doesn't look very promising at present, but you never know! Collinson, *Spoken Engl.* p. 30.

She was the daughter of a respected, bed-ridden draper in an insignificant town, lost in the central labyrinth of England, if you like; yet what manner of man, confronted with her, would or could have denied her naïve claim to dominion? Bennett, *Old Wives' Tale* I ch. 1 § 2.

By the way, tell me something about Sir Hubert Pine. I have only met him once or twice. What kind of man is he? Fergus Hume, *Red Money* p. 19.

1062. *What* is also used in exclamatory sentences, both as a noun and as an adjective (*a*). It is formally distinguished from the interrogative *what* by the use of the indefinite article before singular class-nouns. It is also used as an interrogative or exclamatory interjection (*b*).

a. What was my surprise when I heard he had resigned his post.

What a charming little lady that daughter of yours is!
Gaskell, Wives vol. 2 p. 114.

What a time you are putting on your hat!
Sweet, Element. no. 68.

What a sense of freedom it gives not to write by the
yard or the column. Holmes, Over the Teacups p. 8.

What silly fools we have all been!
Times W. 26/I, 17.

b. What! are the ladies of your land so tall?
Tennyson, Princess II, 33.

Lord Elmsworth had risen. He was tottering a little as
he approached them, but his mind was at rest. — “Much
better, thank you.” — “You know my wife, what?”¹⁾.
Strand Mag.

Take him a long time to get back to China that way.
Must be a fool, what? Strand Mag. Oct. 1925 p. 403.

1063. The use of the independent relative
Independent *what* is parallel to that of *who*. But *what* is
Relative freely used to open a sentence. It is used in
noun-clauses (*a*) and in adverb clauses with front-position
of the verbal stem (*b*).

a. “What I feel about your brother,” said the Duchess
handsomely, “is that he’s not a foreigner.”
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 18 p. 208.

I was unable to resolve the question to my own
satisfaction—whether what had been seen was a real
person, who obtained access to the house in some
unaccountable manner, or whether it was, what I have
called it, an apparition.

Baring-Gould in Swaen I p. 9.

“Nothing,” says Goethe, “is more significant of men’s
character than what they find laughable.”

Eliot, Essays (T.) p. 71.

It is not a text-book; it is more like what our Board

1) The son speaks.

of Education would call "Suggestions to Teachers and Others." Times Ed. S. 22/5, 19.

All through the time between the Norman Conquest and Chaucer one feels that *the Court* is what determines the character of poetry and prose.

Ker, Eng. Lit. p. 102.

The distinction between what are known as higher elementary and secondary teaching respectively is the vital matter to appreciate. Times Ed. S. 5/10, 15.

He must be the kind of man whom other men can trust and work with. That is just what Fox somehow failed to be. Times Lit. 5/2, 20.

The small creature opened what there was of window.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 11 p. 129.

b. Do what it would, the empire could not abolish slavery or serfdom. Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. 11.

German theologians, be their shortcomings what they may, are men of research, not advocates¹⁾.

Pilot 30/11, 1901.

1064. Like the interrogative *what*, relative *what* is also used attributively. It often suggests a limited number or quantity; thus *what certainties* in the first quotation means *the few certainties that (a)*. This meaning is sometimes made clearer by adding *little* or *few* (*b*).

a. Let's hold on to what certainties we can.

Sinister Street p. 892.

My father is a man of few affections, but what he has are very strong. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 18.

He climbed on his horse with what speed he might, and rode away at full gallop.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 31.

"But I never touched the cards," Madame G. protested hysterically. "I took what were given to me."

E. Phillips Oppenheim, Strand Mag. Aug. 1925.

1) In this example *be* is to be interpreted as a subjunctive; see the last chapter in this volume.

b. He had lost what little faith in coercion he had ever possessed. Gooch, Hist. p. 9.

He was not a man given to much talking, but what little he did say, was generally well said.

Trollope, Barchester ch. 9 p. 62.

There were few signs of the invalid about him; and what few there were disappeared under the bright pleasant influence of such a welcome as he received from all. Gaskell, Wives II p. 153.

See also the last quotation of 1063.

1065. In dependent questions and in interrogative adjuncts with a verbal stem, *what* never has this restrictive meaning (*a*). As in the case of the interrogatives, we find *what sort of*, etc. when the kind is thought of (*b*). It is rare for *what* to be used in this meaning (*c*).

a. Tell me what man that was whom we saw lying dead. Dickens, Christmas Carol St. 4.

The writer, if the above be a true presentation of the new scheme, has little or nothing to say against it. Much will depend on how it is worked and by what men.

Times Ed. S. 22/1, '20.

I have been a good deal worried to-day about the question of what luggage to take with me. Jerome.

b. "I wonder what kind of man that is," said Mr. Catchpole, nodding towards those chimneys.

Pickthall, Larkmeadow ch. 1 p. 6.

It was easy to see, she said, what sort of a disposition she had inherited.

Peard, Madame's Grand-daughter p. 41.

It was Minden and Quebec that taught him what sort of a country he belonged to, and what sort of statesman was desirable to have the guiding of it.

Ker, Eighteenth Cent. p. 6.

The force of Tolstoy's teaching may neither lose nor gain by the knowledge of his example, but what could be more natural than the desire to know what manner of man the teacher was? Times Lit. 20/12, 1928 p. 997/2.

c. His task was to show what a man¹⁾ Horatio Nelson was, and justly, for he was writing a biography, which is a study of personality, and was not building a history.

Times Lit. 19/10, 22.

1066. *What* is also used in dependent exclamations. It is formally distinguished from the interrogative function of *what* by the article before singular class-nouns.

Mr. and Mrs. Ambrose were far from guessing what an intimacy had sprung up between the two.

Crawford, *Lonely Parish* ch. 5.

When it is remembered to what an extent illustrations are borrowed from book to book, this fact alone gives distinction to the book. Times Lit. 19/1, '17.

Think, oh, my meditative reader, what an association we have here for these comfortable prebendaries.

Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 4.

It is remarkable what a little thing will draw even the most regular and serious people from the deep groove of their habits. Bennett, *Old W. T.* II ch. 2 § 4.

The use of the article before class-nouns with exclamatory *what* is significant. It shows that emphatic *what* is felt to be an equivalent to such groups as *how great*, etc., which have the same word-order: *how great a failure...* See the treatment of word-order in vol. 3.

The addition of an adjective, as in the last quotation, tends to give *what* an adverbial function.

1067. *What with* is used as a genuine conjunction, forming a syntactic group with the correlative *and*.

So, one way and another, what with papa's friends and mamma's and the children's a good deal of life flowed into the Bloomsbury Square house.

Rose Macaulay, *Told by an Idiot* (T.) I ch. 5 p. 29 f.

1) Note the use of the article. The clause is probably exclamatory, and an instance of 1066.

1068. *What* is used in coordinate relative clauses to refer to a following sentence (*a*). Sometimes the relative clause is interpolated (*b*). Compare *as* (*Conjunctions*).

a. The fellow had a key; and what's more he has it still. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 13.

His mother appeared in a cap and silver spectacles, and his father looked what in fact he was — an earnest, God-fearing man, . . . Hardy, Tess p. 204.

b. It is not for me to tell all she said, even supposing (what is not likely) that any one cared to know it.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 35 p. 231.

He felt (what was rare with him) a nausea and distaste of life. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 28.

Which

1069. The pronoun *which* is used in three ways, like *who*:

- (1) as an interrogative;
- (2) as an independent relative;
- (3) as an anaphoric relative.

1070. Interrogative *which* asks after one or more out of a number of persons or things that is thought of as definite. It not only identifies, however, but classifies all the members of the group, the specimen or specimens rejected as well as those that are selected¹⁾.

Which is primarily used attributively (*a*), also independently when the idea it refers to is mentioned in the same or in a neighbouring sentence, often in the form of a group with *of* (*b*). It is hardly ever used as a real noun referring to persons; in the case here quoted (*c*) it may refer to the *one* that follows.

1) This is based on an article in *De Drie Talen* by Eijkman.

a. You promised to fix a day early next week, you know, father. Which day shall it be?

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 14.

I want to have a look at our old school at Green Hill.
— So do I. Let's go together. — All right. Which way shall we go? — I don't care, as long as we keep off the road¹⁾.
Sweet, Elem. no. 64.

"Yes I do know some one here after all! That funny-looking couple over there were at Aix-les Bains all last summer."

"Which people do you mean?" asked Sylvia eagerly.
Belloc Lowndes, Chink in the Armour ch. 5.

Miss E. M. Delafield is the Cordelia of modern novelists. Which other of them gives so much with such few pretensions. There are no decorative flourishes to her titles, her style, or her plots. Times Lit. 5/10, 22.

b. *Miss Smith.* "Now, Madge, tell me, which would you rather be — pretty or good?"

Madge (promptly). "I would rather be pretty, Miss Smith; I can easily be good whenever I like to try."

Which produces the truer portrait, the art of a master hand or the mechanics of the photographer?

Times Lit. 19/4, 18.

Which of our divisions was called "The Old Guard of Gallipoli"? Times Lit. 1/8, 16.

Which of you can give the correct answer at once to this question?

c. Which is the worst off, I wonder — the one that is left, or the one that is gone — the one that sees no longer or the one that still sees, or it may be sees more than ever before?
de Morgan, Vance ch. 41.

See 1287.

1071. Classifying *which* is exceptionally used in a disjunctive question. It may be looked upon as a transitional case leading to the use of 1072.

1) The last sentence clearly shows the classifying character of *which*.

"I say, mammy!"

"What, dear?"

"Isn't that St. John's Church?"

"Isn't which St. John's Church?"

"Where Tishy goes?"

"Yes, Ladbroke Grove Road. Why?"

"Because now Mr. Bradshaw will go there — public worship!" de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 12 p. 121.

1072. Interrogative *which* is also employed when a speaker wants a statement or word to be explained to him¹⁾.

"Where did you go for a holiday?"

"Well, at first it was settled that I was to go to Switzerland with my father and the girls."

"Which girls?"

"Why, my sister and my cousin Annie."

Sweet, *Element.* no. 73.

"You did splendidly, Michael²⁾. That beast!" —

"Which?" — "His name's MacGown."

Galsworthy, *Silver Spoon* II ch. 2 p. 119.

And even in Paris I don't suppose you would approve of him in that respect (i. e. as regards dress) but if you could see him in Petersburg, then I believe you would be like all the rest. — All which rest? asked Tamare. — Women. They simply adore him.

El. Glyn, *His Hour* (T.) p. 57.

I gathered from your note . . . that the girl . . . might be just one of the parrot-set, . . . who follow the fashion and repeat the cry. — Which cry? said Charles.

Sidgwick, *A Lady of Leisure* p. 12.

I'm just asking you this — isn't there likely to be trouble with the Japs over this job? — Which job?

Graphic 18/4, 1925.

1073. It can be used independently in the same meaning.

1) The last three quotations in this section are borrowed from an article by Dr. Arvid Smith in *Moderna Språk* for December 1929 p. 174.

2) A Parliamentary maiden speech.

Were you looking for a key, too? she asked, and he stared at her. — A which?

Wallace, *The Door with the Seven Locks* p. 10.

But when I decided to go into partnership with Mr. Bagshawe... — When you which? asked Ma. — My expression is correct, Eliza.

Barry Pain, *Eliza's Son*.

Independent Relative 1074. The independent relative *which* is used in the same meaning as the interrogative *which*. It occurs in dependent questions both as an adjective (*a*) and independently (*b*). Its use in dependent statements is exceptional (*c*).

a. Trivial in fact as were the actual points of difference which severed the Roman Church from the Irish, the question to which communion Northumbria should belong was of immense moment to the after fortunes of England.

Green, *Short Hist.* p. 30.

Which particular hall or room in the palace was most frequently used for the meeting of the earliest parliaments is uncertain. Ilbert, *Parliament* p. 120 f.

Accordingly, by a stroke of genius, they determined that one of them should become a solicitor and the other a barrister, and then tossed up as to who should take to which trade. R. Haggard, *Meeson* ch. 15.

b. She advised him which of the Academy pictures he ought to admire. Sidgwick, *Severins* p. 38.

I don't know which I was inclined to blame her most for, trying or failing. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 13 p. 147.

The Major took advantage of a slight choke over his whiskey to mix a brief nod into it; it was a lie — but then he himself couldn't have said which was nod and which was choke; so it hardly counted.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 16 p. 165.

One or other must conquer, and the future of mankind depends upon which is to be the victor.

Times W. 18/1, '18.

And once more I cannot too strongly emphasize the excellent impression made on the Australians by the behaviour

and the gallantry of the Americans. It is hard to say which admires the other the more. Times W. 12/7, '18.

"I declare, I don't know which is the biggest fool of the two," said Uncle Bat, very rudely.

Trollope, Three Clerks, p. 250.

You say they quarrelled in a pot-house? Is there anything to show which provoked the fight? Morgan, Vance ch. 2.

A night of happy augury to Father and Son. They were looking out for the same thing; only one employed science, the other instinct: and which hit upon the right it was for time to decide.

Meredith, Feverel, 1st ed. reprinted Memorial ed. vol. 27 p. 14.

They even confessed to rage and pity and disgust one moment, and to joy and dreams the next, and they differed greatly as to what excited which.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 17 p. 205.

They knew all the landmarks, and the lie of all the streets, and which were the best shops.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II ch. 2 § 2.

c. There is an Almighty Judge and Ruler of nations who gives victory to which he will; but the victory is no more a necessary token of His favour than the chastisement of defeat. Stubbs, Lect. Early Eng. Hist. p. 335.

1075. The independent relative *which* is also used in adverb clauses opening with a plain stem.

Sometimes, turn my head which way I would, I seemed to see the gold. Eliot, Silas Marner ch. 19.

He might see a reason for his friend's strange preference or bondage (call it which you please).

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 21.

Turn the matter which way you will, you come back to the all-important consideration on which we have already dwelt. Dicey, Law of the Const. Lect. VII.

Anaphoric Relative 1076. The anaphoric relative *which* differs from the interrogative and independent relative *which* in two important respects:

(1) anaphoric *which* has no classifying meaning;

(2) anaphoric *which* refers to non-personal words only.

Anaphoric *which* is used in all kinds of attributive clauses (*a*), also in apparent attributive clauses (*b*). It can be used as any part of the clause (subject, object, predicate, prepositional adjunct) but it cannot be used as a non-prepositional adverb adjunct: see the last quotation (*c*) and the sections on the conjunction *that*.

a. The fire which caused the disaster broke out in the top floor of the factory. Times W. 26/1, 17.

The earliest form of community of which we can find a trace is that described by Tacitus.

Stubbs, Lect. Early Eng. Hist. p. 5.

The attendance of a representative of the United States distinguishes this Conference from all which have preceded it. Times W. 30/11, '17.

As such they contain very much which is valuable. Pilot 21/5, 1904.

But this which was upon them now was unlike any silence that had fallen upon them before.

Temple Thurston, The Green Bough (T.) p. 151.

I will tell her what there is about her which is so fetching. E. Ph. Oppenheim, Anna the Adventurer ch. 20 p. 142.

The problem of government for these new churches was a grave one. It was hopeless to look to Rome, which to all appearance was incorrigible.

Watson, Church of England p. 117.

b. It is this fact which gives the book its peculiar value. Times Lit. 22/6, 16.

But it was especially her eyes which attracted John's sudden attention at that first glance.

Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 2.

c. The supreme evil of war is bound up with that which so naturally passes for its supreme good — the fact that it makes whole peoples absolute partners in a way in which they never can be in peace.

J. M. Robertson in R. P. A. Annual 1915 p. 49.

1077. *Which* is used as the nominal predicate or as the predicative adjunct to an object when the noun denotes a person as well as when it has other meanings. On the adjectival character of predicative nouns, see *Sentence-Structure*.

Moreover it (viz. the poem) is scarcely worthy in form of the virtuoso which Mr. Hardy was presently to become.

E. Gosse, Edinb. Rev. April 1918, p. 275.

Ignorance remains the evil which it ever was, but something of the peace of certitude is gained by knowing the worst. Morley, Compromise p. 132.

He looked like a mild, self-indulgent bachelor, with rooms in the Albany — which he was.

Chesterton, Innocence of Father Brown.

1078. *Which* is used adjectively in continuative adjective clauses.

Rider Haggard has done for the Zulus at least as much as Cooper has done for the Red Indians of North America, which latter delighted in nothing so much as the torture of their captives. Spectator.

Their stay in the United States lasted about four months, during which time they saw Boston, New York, etc.

Ward, Dickens ch. 3 p. 49.

The Conley girls accused him of cruelty to the beautiful dame, which novel idea stung Harry with delight. Meredith, Harrington ch. 30 p. 319.

1079. *Which* can also refer to antecedents (not denoting persons) in adjuncts with a verbal stem.

About the artist we wish Mr. Baily could have had the space in which to say more. Times Lit. 1/4, 15.

At seven o'clock Mr. de Courcy and his friends got down from their carriage at the smaller door — for this was no day on which to mount up under the portico.

Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 206.

Peter's nursery was a perfect room in which to hatch the soul of a little boy. Wells, Joan and Peter ch. 2 § 2.

1080. *Which* can refer to a preceding sentence.

I had taken a loathing to my gentleman at first sight.
So had the child's family, which was only natural.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 7.

She had a pleasant voice, and read aloud well and distinctly, which Lady Cumnor liked.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 9 p. 143.

He was ready to do a good turn for his connections, if it occasioned him no loss of time, and if (which was, perhaps, a primary condition) he remembered their existence.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 288.

This may be said to be a defect in an individual if he depends for his valuation more upon his appearance than upon his capacity to wear well, which Oak did not.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 1.

(I was) also abused, and taken amiss, and (which vexed me most of all) unknown.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 64 p. 483.

Further examples of *which* so used are to be found in Blackmore's *Lorna Doone* (ch. 46 p. 318), Maitland, *Justice and Police* (p. 2), W. de Morgan, *Alice for Short* (p. 139), and in two quotations referred to by A. Trampe Bödtker in Anglia Beibl. 26, 13.

1081. *Which* is also used to refer to an adjective which serves as the predicate of the relative clause. Compare the use of *which* to refer to a personal antecedent noun, illustrated in 1077.

When over-wrought, which he often was, he became acutely irritable. C. Brontë, Villette ch. 30 p. 352.

Even if the pronunciations described were one and all vulgar, which they certainly are not . . .

Wyld, Growth p. 73.

Who, What, and Which Compared

1082. *Who* and *what* as interrogatives and as independent relatives have distinct functions, *what* serving as what may be called the neuter pronoun that is parallel to the personal *who*.

But the interrogative *what* is used predicatively to refer to persons. In reality, however, *what* does not refer to the person but to his quality, profession etc.; it is used in a descriptive meaning, whereas *who* is used to identify.

What is your young fellow's name? Who is he?
What is he? Meredith, Harrington ch. 294.

Who was he? What was he? Sinister Street p. 649.

"What is this Madame Flauve? Is she a lady?" Cook asked. ib. p. 46.

"Miss Jenkyns is an old pig."

"Who is Miss Jenkins?" asked Michael, understanding that some appeal was being made to his sympathy . . .

"She is Sydney's aunt," said Clotilda. "She lives just opposite, and Sydney made her call . . ."

Mrs. Sidgwick, The Severins ch. 6.

"Who is Marie Petersen?" he asked, when his mother came into the garden again ...

"She is a Russian," said Mrs. Severin; "a very clever woman. She speaks six languages, and has a contralto voice that harmonizes with Clotilda's soprano. But she is really Selma's friend."

“Who is Kremski?”

"He is — Kremski," said Mrs. Severin, looking thoroughly uncomfortable. "He manufactured the bomb that Marie — dear little Marie — threw at the Russian general . . ." ib.

Then the major announced himself.

"My name is Major Grantly," said he; and he was blundering on with some words about his own intrusion, when Mrs. Dale begged him to follow her into the drawing-room. He had muttered something to the effect that Mrs. Dale would not know who he was, but Mrs. Dale

knew all about him, and had heard the whole of Grace's story from Lily. Trollope, Last Chronicle ch. 28.

Interrogative Who and What Compared with Which 1083. The uses of the interrogative pronouns, though they have been defined and illustrated in the sections on each of them, require some further comment. The most important point is the delimitation of the uses of *who* and *what* on the one hand, and of *which* on the other.

It has been shown that *who* and *what* are used as general interrogatives, and also as special interrogatives; *which*, on the contrary, is a special interrogative only. We must, consequently, consider the three pronouns in their function of special interrogatives, both in direct and in dependent questions.

1084. The best plan seems to be: to study a number of sentences in which *who* or *what* are used, although there is a classification that might seem to require *which*, according to 1070. Secondly, the concurrent use of two pronouns will be shown, which will also require some comment.

a. In teaching English the most effective course of all seems to be this: having selected an exemplary passage, first to assign its peculiar excellence and its deficiency, and next to point out what things contribute to the one, what to the other, and what are indifferent to both.

Bain, Companion, Preface p. VII.

As Disraeli remarks in one of his most illuminating phrases, 'Few ideas are correct ones, and what are correct no one can ascertain, but with words we govern men'.

Jones and I had a small bet as to who would stick out the longer. Punch 1915.

They sit up till one o'clock discussing who of our year is most likely to be elected president of the I. C. R.¹⁾ four years from now. Sinister Street p. 456.

1) i. e. Junior Common Room.

Time alone can enable us to grasp the full significance of this new Risorgimento, and help us slowly to see what seed will grow and what will not of those that it has sown.

Times W. 6/6, '13.

Local divorce being admittedly necessary, the question of what divorces should be tried on Assizes and what in the County Court is a minor question.

Edinb. Rev. April 1917.

All or nearly all the politicians of those days were in the game for what they could get out of it. But they could never be sure what was the best card.

Times Lit. 5/2, '20.

With those three and a half years it is a case of Things sticking out, like hillocks in a flat country, and it is retrospection rather than impressions at the time that show what mattered and what did not.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 6 p. 62.

"No, no," I said, "we must either work or part. There are three dollars, half of my earnings, so please yourself whether we work or part, whether you go or stay; for I have already decided my own course. What is it to be?" Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 6 p. 42.

Ignatius was as bold as Luther in venturing to decide as to what impulses were prompted of God, and what of the devil, but he differed from Luther in making his decisions coincide with authority.

Mackie, Engl. Hist. Rev. 43 (Jan. 1928) p. 114.

b. I have left to the last the most interesting inquiry of all. What virtues were these institutions the most likely to foster, and which to neglect?

Stubbs, Lect. Early Engl. Hist. p. 16.

"You must pick and choose, Betty. 'Tis the privilege of your sex. Come now, who pleases you best?" "She likes the boys, the coquette!" exclaimed the Admiral. "And which of the three, missie, do you like best?"

Vachell, Brothers I p. 18.

1085. There seems to be no doubt that in all the quotations of 1084 α the things or persons are classified. And yet,

the substitution of the classifying *which* would materially alter the meaning of the sentences. For it would emphasize the classification, and bring it forward as the primary idea in the author's mind. And Professor Bain, in the first quotation, although he classifies the qualities of the passages referred to, wishes to discuss these qualities, not their classification. The same applies to the other examples; in the one from Davies it is clear that *which* would spoil the sentence: *what* is used because the speaker wishes to express his complete indifference as to the decision to be taken by his companion. And these considerations will equally account for the use of both pronouns in the sentences quoted in b.

1086. The meanings of the three pronouns as distinguished in 1085 are also shown by the sentences, more or less traditional, although fully living English, in which a pronoun is used once as a subject, and a second time as a nominal predicate.

Those whose names would be in History's 'Who's Who?' Nat. Geogr. Mag. quoted NED. s.v. *who* no. 4.

My distinguished friend ... who appeared as a witness had told me what was what.

Times 26/10, 1911. ib. s.v. *what*.

Caroline, looking round, met a new Robert — the real Robert ...

"Well," said he, ...; "which is which?"

Brontë, Shirley ch. 23.

Sairah shuffled into another room, and was heard to turn over garments. The Artist seemed to know which was which, by the sound. For he called out: "None of those! On the hook."

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 1 p. 2.

1087. As anaphoric relatives, *who* and *which* are clearly differentiated, *who* referring to personal, *which* to non-personal antecedents.

When collective nouns denoting persons are con-

strued as plurals because the individuals forming the group are thought of, the relative pronoun is naturally *who* (*a*). If the collective idea predominates the relative *which* is used (*b*).

- a.* The young couple moved northwards to a new station, and began to work among a tribe who soon learned to love them.

They were not of the kind who invite you to their houses and having you thus in their power try to pierce you with little insults.

The party who had agreed to congregate there — the party, that is, whom we are to meet — was very select.

Trollope, *Three Clerks* p. 292.

- b.* The French army which surrendered at Sedan was 100,000 men strong.

Let her escape unmangled, it will pass in the record that she did once publicly run, and some old dogs will persist in thinking her cunniger than the virtuous *which* never put themselves in such positions, but ply the distaff at home.

Meredith, *Diana* p. 7.

In the following passage *which* is probably used because the antecedent contains both a collective name of persons and the name of a thing.

Enough of daylight was left to show how strange were the place and people among which they found themselves.

INTERROGATIVE-RELATIVE ADVERBS

1088. Living English has four interrogative-relative adverbs that are related to the pronouns in form and meaning: *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*. The treatment of their uses may be considered as part of the task of a grammarian as well as of the lexicographer. It seems practical to make some observations about them here.

Interrogative 1089. As to the interrogative use of these adverbs, it may be mentioned that *where* expresses direction as well as position, like several non-pronominal adverbs. The pronominal adverbs express time, place, reason, and manner; *when* denotes a point of time, extent being expressed by *how long*; and direction from a place is expressed by *from where*. All other adverb relations must be expressed by nouns with the interrogative *what*: *on what grounds*, *in what direction*, etc.

Independent Relative 1090. The pronominal adverbs are also used as independent relatives, both in ordinary adverb clauses, and in those with front-position of a plain stem (188 b).

Self-confidence, intellectual keenness, a bright humour, frank courage, were traits legible enough; and when the lips parted to show their warmth, their fullness, when the eye-lids drooped a little in meditation, one became aware .. Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

I'll take you where we shall get a better view. NED.

(He) came where the king abode.

Beowulf 1312, tr. Gummere.

1091. The pronominal adverbs are also used in noun-clauses with an introductory preposition. They do not really differ from adverb clauses.

I can see it from where we stand.

Tennyson, Harold V. I. (NED).

Hied then in haste to where Hrothgar sat

White-haired and old, his earls about him.

Beowulf 356, tr. Gummere.

Anaphoric Relative 1092. The pronominal adverbs are used as anaphoric relatives, referring to nouns related to them in meaning: *the time when*, *the place where*, *the reason why*, *the manner how*.

There never was a time when I felt more fit for work.

No. 104 Portland Place was the house where the Duchess of Wrexham had lived now for sixty years.

Walpole, *Duchess* I ch. 2 § 1.

Tell me the reason why you did not want to go.

His eyes were watching for the moment when the accounts should be finished and Stephen free.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 § 2 p. 31.

And he knew nobody in Paris except the old professor's family where Ruth and Rosemary stayed before the war.

Sedgwick, *The Little French Girl* I ch. 8 p. 71.

Thursday, the thirty-first of August, was one of a series of days during which snug houses were stifling, and when cool draughts were treats; etc.

Hardy, *Native* IV ch. 5 p. 341.

1093. *When* and *where* are also used in continuative adjective clauses. In these clauses *why* and *how* are replaced by *for which reason*, *in which manner*.

In Ovillers-la-Boisselle, where there has been continuous hand-to-hand fighting since July 7, we captured the remaining stronghold of the enemy.

Ill. *London News*, 5/8, '16.

COMPOUND INTERROGATIVE-RELATIVE PRONOUNS

1094. The compound interrogative-relative pronouns with *-ever* are used in interrogative sentences to express surprise, impatience, or dissatisfaction on the part of the speaker. The distinctions between *whoever*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, are the same as between the simple pronouns. The forms *whose-ever*, *whomever* are hardly ever used. *Whichever*, too, is rare in interrogative sentences.

Whoever would have thought of meeting you?

Whoever has been so stupid as to turn over the inkstand?

Whatever are you up to, old man?

Vachell, Quinneys' p. 194.

Whatever's the matter with you? Sinister Street p. 83.

In vulgar English the pronoun is sometimes separated from *ever* by some word.

"What has ever got your precious father then?" said Mrs. Cratchit. Dickens, Christmas Carol Stave 3.

1095. The compound pronouns are used as independent relatives to open all sorts of noun-clauses (*a*) and adverb-clauses (*b*). The addition of *ever* serves to emphasize the indefiniteness of the pronouns, and often helps to make adverb clauses concessive in meaning.

a. I'm determined to be surprised at nothing, and will give her away with a good grace to whoever comes.

Gaskell, Wives III p. 253.

Now will you please tell me at once whether whoever is hurt is likely to get over it?

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 25 p. 264.

Whatever a writer says, whatever combinations of words into sentences he uses to express an idea, will not be precisely like any other combination ever made, unless it be the stock phrase or the stock sentence.

Brewster, The Writing of English p. 12.

It is evident that the Irish party has lost whatever claim it had to speak for the people of Ireland.

Times Lit. 18/10, '18.

They at length agreed on a plan to settle the question. Whichever first made a traveller take off his cloak, was to be accounted the most powerful.

I had tried the second (viz. method). But both are equally detestable and unsuccessful. At any rate whichever you're trying is the worse, the impossible one.

Mansfield, Bliss p. 93 f.

b. Whatever we may think of the venture, we can have no doubt of Thackeray's courage and enterprise.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 14.

They were interesting and amusing, in whatever language they were told. Ker, Eng. Lit. p. 115.

Whatever criticisms may be directed against our Public Schools, it is generally admitted that most of them teach their pupils the meaning of solidarity.

Times Ed. S. 14/2, '18.

The physical suffering on Emily's part when absent from Haworth... became at length so much an acknowledged fact, that whichever was obliged to leave home, the sisters decided that Emily must remain there.

Gaskell, Life of C. Brontë ch. 8 p. 114.

The main lines continue the same whichever party¹⁾ triumphs. Pollard, Hist. of Eng. p. 128.

But the government of the day, whichever party is in power, does not show much inclination to adopt this suggestion. Ilbert, Parliament p. 203.

1096. Noun-clauses with *whoever* can serve as subject clauses, but this use is literary rather than spoken English; see 1051 on *who*.

Whoever goes should be distinctly warned that he will undertake a service of great difficulty and danger.

Sir Evelyn Baring, in Engl. 19th Cent. II. p. 72.

Whoever writes continuously will drain himself dry, unless he continues to learn at the same time.

Sir F. Palgrave, quoted Times Lit. 22/5, '19.

1097. The compound pronouns are not frequent in dependent questions (*a*); they can have the character of exclamatory pronouns (*b*).

a. I wonder now what ever there can be inside this chest. NED. s. v. *ever* 8 d.

I wonder whatever queer thing he'll do next.
ib. s. v. *Whatever*.

"I don't know whatever my uncle would say to this," he had declared. Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 10 p. 86.

1) i. e. political party.

b. Whatever state the place would get into if it wasn't
for her, she couldn't tell!

de Morgan, *A Likely Story* ch. 1 p. 9.

1098. *Whatever* is also used in the meaning referred to in 1064.

The Governor-General has been stripped of whatever little authority he retained.

Goldwin Smith, quoted NED.

1099. The compound pronouns are regularly used in free adjuncts.

No one can fail to have observed how a certain atmosphere pervades all hotel-life, whichever the continent, or whatever the country. My experience of hotels is limited to three continents and twice as many countries.

The fall of Jerusalem, whatever its military importance, marks the latest stage in a singularly brilliant and successful campaign. Times W. 14/12, '17.

It is sometimes supposed, with whatever justice, that the leading defect in the spirit of Cambridge is found in a failure to honour the manner as well as the matter.

Times Lit. 30/3, '16.

1100. The compound *whatever* is used as an adjective-adjunct to preceding negative nouns or pronouns (*a*). The pronoun may be separated from its noun by an intervening adjunct (*b*).

a. When the ship was torpedoed there was no confusion whatever. Times W. 1/2, '18.

There was no territorial episcopate whatever.

Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 25.

The doctrine that a soldier is bound under all circumstances whatever¹⁾ to obey his superior officer would be fatal to military discipline itself.

Dicey, *Law of the Const.* Lect. VII.

1) For the negative meaning of *all* see below on *Indefinite Pronouns*.

I did not mean by that that I had any intention whatever of giving up my office at the present time.

Times W. 21/12, '17.

There was, indeed, much in common between the aspect and manner of the two men, though no likeness, in the strict sense, whatever.

Mrs. H. Ward, Harper's Mag. May 1918.

Cedric himself knew nothing whatever about it.

Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. I.

b. A rubbing of eyes, and behold a stout guard in front of the door and *no sign* of the Old Gentleman whatever, but... Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 4 p. 44.

The two boys in the carriage paid *no attention* to him whatever. ib. p. 45.

Compound Interrogative-Relative Adverbs

1101. The compounds *whenever*, *wherever*, *however* (for *why ever*, see 1102) are used both interrogatively (*a*), and as independent relatives in noun-clauses (*b*) and in adverb clauses (*c*).

a. Whenever are you going to finish this introduction?
Wherever have you been?

b. You may come whenever you like.

I shall remember it wherever I go.

Do it however you can.

c. How ever the Society can get along with an Hon. Secretary who has an ear-trumpet I don't know.

De Morgan, Vance ch. 16.

To say truth she did not know in the least how ever she was going to ask this almost strange man about a girl of doubtful character.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 14.

Character of the Compounds in -ever

1102. It may have been noticed that in most of the sentences with pronouns and adverbs in *ever* the words are

written as single words, but occasionally *ever* is written as an independent word. The reason is that the composition of the words with *-ever* is not close, because the meaning of *ever* is quite clear. This is necessarily so, because *ever* is used in the same meaning without any pronominal word, both in interrogative sentences (*a*) and in adverb clauses (*b*).

a. "Oh dear, oh dear!" said Laetitia Wilson. "Was ever a poor girl so sat upon? I feel quite flat."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 12 p. 117.

"No. I'm not at all sure that I wanted you to realise it."

"Why ever not?"

May Sinclair, *Rector of Wyck* ch. 9 p. 97.

As soon as ever Mr. Bradshaw touched his violin, and before ever he began to play his Hungarian dance on all four strings at once, Mrs. Nightingale and Mr. Fenwick went away into the back drawing-room, not to be too near the music.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 12 p. 106.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Forms 1103. The demonstrative pronouns are:

Singular	Plural
----------	--------

ðɪs this	ðɪz these
----------	-----------

ðæt that	ðoʊz those
----------	------------

Without distinction of number: *such*.

This and *these* may be looked upon as forms of the same word; *that* and *those* as a suppletive pair. The two pronouns are the only ones that can truly be said to have special forms for the singular and the plural.

Use 1104. The English demonstratives are primarily adjectives. Like other adjective-pronouns (*all*, *any*, *some*) they can also be used substantively, and within

the same, or very similar, limits, which differ from the substantive use of non-pronominal adjectives.

1105. It will probably be convenient to treat *this* and *that* together as much as possible. Both pronouns are used in two ways:

- (1) deictically;
- (2) anaphorically.

See 998.

Deictic Use

1106. Deictic *this* and *that* may be distinguished as:

- (1) *local* and *temporal*;
- (2) *affective*;
- (3) *determinative*.

Local — **1107.** Deictic *this* (*these*) when used as demonstrative adjective-pronouns points to what and **Temporal** is thought of by the speaker as near in space. When referring to time it expresses a connection with the speaker's present. *That* (*those*) is used to point to what is thought of as further away in space, or separated from the present time¹⁾. We may say that *this* treats an idea as in the sphere of the speaker or first person (*a*), *that* as belonging to the sphere of a second or third person or away from the speaker (*b*).

a. What is the price of this book?

It may make this story easier to read at this point if we tell our reader that this twenty-fifth chapter contains little of vital import —.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 25 p. 264.

The special value that these thousand and odd pages

1) This difference between *this* and *that* is also shown by the tenses of the verb.

possess arises from the unrivalled first-hand knowledge that the writer has of the question involved.

Athen. 24/10, 1908.

We have not seen anything of him this week.

Here's some hay; let's lie down on it; there's nothing I like better than lying on dry hay. — *Is it dry?* — It ought to be by this time. Sweet, Element. no. 64.

Rachel goes every morning: she overdoes it — she'll be laid up one of these days.

Galsworthy, Caravan p. 2.

b. Look at that boy who is just getting up from his chair.

What are you going to do with all that money?

It's lightning again. It's quite near this time. By Jove, it's struck that tree!

Collinson, Spoken Engl. p. 36.

We must be still a good way from the old place; and yet I seem to know these fields again. I'm sure I've seen that elm before, with those rooks' nests in it.

Sweet, Element. no. 65.

Success now leaned this way, now that.

Goodspeed, Hist. p. 177.

1108. When used substantively, *this* and *that* are neuter, pointing to things only. The plurals *these* and *those* can be used to point to persons.

a. "My dear child, *is* this the place to talk about things in? *Do* be a little discreet sometimes," is her reply to Sally's request¹⁾.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 18 p. 175.

When he got there, and went upstairs two steps at a time, and "I say, Tishy dearest, look at *this!*" on his lips, he was met half-way by his young wife, also extending a newspaper, and "Peggy, just *fancy* what's happened! Look at *this!*"¹⁾. ib. ch. 47 p. 524.

1) Italics in the original in all three sentences.

b. "But," she continued, "I couldn't give up any of mamma — no, not so much as *that* — if she was to marry twenty Mr. Fenwicks." As the quantity indicated was the smallest little finger-end that could be checked off with a thumb-nail¹⁾, etc. ib. ch. 6 p. 53.

The decent pretext came in due course, and Gideon said, 'So that's that?'

Rose Macaulay, Potterism I ch. 2 § 4 p. 22.

1109. In nominal sentences the neuter *this* and *that* can be used substantively to point to persons. The sentence may serve to identify (*a*), like those with *it* (see 922), but also to give information about a person (*b*). A sentence may serve to identify and give information at the same time (*c*).

a. The young man stepped forward with a pleasant smile. "This," said he, "is Colonel Sapt, and I am called Fritz von Tarlenheim . . ." Hope, Zenda ch. 3.

"Who is that?" he whispered to Mark, who sat beside him. "That's Stride, our resident doctor."

Vachell, Brothers I p. 253.

b. "Betty," said he, "we've dropped two guineas. See if you can find them." Betty went down on her hands and knees, and found the one guinea, which had rolled under the fender.

"That's a very good girl, Betty," said John Scott, pocketing the coin, "and when you find the other you can keep it for your trouble." Russell, Collections I, 32.

This is a very interesting man.

c. "This is a friend of mine, Mr. Westcott," Miss Monogue said (viz. to her friend Miss Rossiter). She (viz. Miss R.) turned gravely and met him.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 2 § 2 p. 167.

1110. Neuter *this* and *that* are also used deictically with reference to persons, in appended clauses.

1) See the footnote on the preceding page.

I forget how Mrs. Nightingale came into the conversation, but she did, somehow.

"She's a very charming woman, that," squeaked the Major — "a very charming woman."

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 7 p. 59.

1111. A special case of deictic *this* and *these* (not *that*) in its local meaning is its use as an *anticipatory* pronoun, to announce what is following. The pronoun in this function is characterized by a rising intonation.

Under the Inscription are these words in Greek letters, *Kairos ho Pandamator*.

We don't understand girls, but we ask this question of those who do: Is it possible that Miss Sally was impressed by the splendid arm with the name tattooed on it?
de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 4 p. 33.

He had this great quality, which very few of us can claim, that his presence was as big as his absence.

Chesterton, *Inn. of Father Brown*, p. 27.

We will confine ourselves to saying this, that the criticism which he has put forward is one which cannot be neglected.

Times Lit. 15/I, '20.

I speak no word of boast, but this I say:

A private loss here founds a nation's peace.

M. Arnold, *Merope*.

1112. *That* is used deictically in an intensive meaning as an adjective (*a*) and as an adverb of degree (*b*). Both uses are strictly limited to familiar English, and the adverbial use is hardly standard at all. Compare the intensive use of *such* (1133) and *so* (1139).

a. He has that confidence in his theory that he would act on it to-morrow. Fowler, Dict. of MnE. Usage.

b. Miss Gwendolen was, however, *that* impatient that no subterfuge, however skilfully engineered, could be relied upon to last¹⁾.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 33 p. 344.

1) The italics, which are the author's, are evidently intended to draw attention to the form; it may be called nursery-English in this case.

"Of course it wasn't a civil remark, in the manner of speaking," said my Mother, "but your Father, my dear, was that simple and honourable himself he never had a suspicion of guile." de Morgan, Vance ch. 1.

Here's a young lady beautiful as roses and that accomplished and that thoroughbred she makes an honest tradesman feel like dirt. Hetty Wesley by "Q" p. 203.

Affective 1113. Both *this* (*a*) and *that* (*b*) can also express an affective meaning. They denote or connote a pleased interest, dissatisfaction, contempt, or simply notoriety.

a. "And who is this Clarissa Vine?" Michael indignantly demanded. Sinister Street p. 609.

What do you think of this wireless telegraphy? N.E.D.

They say at Burkitt's he's one of these artistic chaps—got an idea of improving English architecture.

Galsworthy, Man of Property ch. 1.

What was the play like you went to last night? — Rather rotten. I'm getting a bit sick of these drawing-room plays. Collinson, Sp. Engl. p. 80.

How the deuce did he ever come to be Tod's son? Sheila, of course, is one of these hot-headed young women that make themselves a nuisance nowadays, but she's intelligible. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 16 p. 136.

She walks like one of these women one reads about.

E. Ph. Oppenheim, The Lighted Way ch. 9 p. 79.

b. "Wasn't that Mr. Yardley in the shop to-night?" began Constance.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II ch. 1 § 2.

"No man," wrote that authoritative but autocratic biographer, John Forster, "ever put so much of himself into his books as Goldsmith."

Camb. Hist. Eng. Lit. X.

With that he blew out his candle, put on a great coat, and set forth in the direction of Cavendish Square, that citadel of medicine, where his friend, the great Dr. Lanyon, had his house and received his crowding patients.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 17.

"D'you think Carter's just got the wind up, or d'you think he is one of those old juggins who keep thousands of pounds buried in the back cellar?"

V. Bridges, *The Red Lodge* ch. 1 p. 23.

1114. Affective *this* and *that* can also be used substantively with reference to persons. See 1109.

"Would you like to marry Malcolm?" I asked.

"Fancy being owned by that! Fancy seeing it every day!" El. Glyn, *Vicissitudes of Evangeline* p. 127.

1115. The difference between *this* and *that* when used affectively is, of course, not a question of place or time, but subjective: *this* is used to refer to what the speaker feels as something concerning him more intimately; *that* refers to what he feels as more distant, hence it may specially express dissatisfaction and contempt, although *this* can also express that feeling.

"I am supposed to be proof against the evil influences of these gods," and he indicated with his chin the room they had just left.

W. Le Queux, *Cipher Six* ch. 17 p. 169.

He was one of those people who take delight in conveying disagreeable news. ib. ch. 5 p. 47.

1116. The pronouns are frequently used humorously, with a post-possessive.

It's that wife of his, of course.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 2.

Go and order some strawberries and cream for this father of yours. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 7.

Say, can't you get that husband of yours to come right back from wherever he is? Hichens, *Ambition* ch. 27.

I only mentioned it because I'm afraid that with your beautiful nature you will be too merciful to that Guy of yours. Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 306.

I'm a very dull sort of a chap after that Guy of yours.
ib. p. 341.

It would be tempting to ascribe the humorous character of the construction to the suggestion of numbers in the post-possessive (889). But we also find the combination when real affection (*a*) or contempt and dissatisfaction (*b*) are expressed. The conclusion is, therefore, that the kind of feeling is indicated by the situation only.

a. And then I sit and think of that dear wife of mine that I lost a quarter of a century ago.
de Morgan, Vance ch. 33 p. 327.

b. To Soames this was another grievance. He hated that pride of hers, and secretly dreaded it.

Galsworthy, Man of Property I ch. 4.

His mother hastily adopted the correction, and did not resent his making it, or retaliate, as she might well have done, by bidding him to wipe that crumby mouth of his, whose condition had been caused by surreptitious attempts to eat a piece of cake without taking it out of the pocket wherein it lay concealed.

Hardy, Life's Little Ironies.

And what were you to do in Ostend? What were your instructions from this husband of yours?

A. Bennett, Grand Babylon p. 85.

Upon my word, of all the horrid men I ever heard of, I think that this publisher of yours is the worst.

R. Haggard, Meeson's Will.

1117. Another special case of the deictic use of the pronouns of the second and third persons is the determinative use. It follows from the meaning of the determinative pronouns that the pronouns of the first person are not so used.

That and *those* are used as adjectives (*a*) and as nouns (*b*). The determinative *that* is exclusively literary; *those* is more frequent, but it is not really colloquial English.

a. In his boyhood John Galt had that reflective tendency which makes the quiet sedentary youth an uneasy object to those around him.

It is well-known that the secondary schools of London fall easily into three great groups. There are, first of all, those schools that carry on their work quite independently of the Education Committee.

Times Ed. S. 4/4, '16.

Everywhere there was the sense of that far-distant waking of the world, when a cock crows in the East, another faintly answers him in the West and then all is still.

Temple Thurston, *Antagonists*, opening sentence.

b. That which to us seems a lean and barren sentence, was to them the text for a winter evening's entertainment.

Earle, *Chronicles* p. XXI.

That which had once a serious purpose and marked an advance in thought or art, tends to degenerate in tone or to survive mainly as a source of harmless amusement.

Dobbs, *Education* p. 21.

Ideals may fade but the memory of those who realise them are the world's abiding possession.

Davis, *Med. Europe* p. 212.

But on those of us who are not soldiers the influence of the war broods like the memory of a nightmare.

Times Lit. 3/2, '16.

1118. The determinative pronouns are also used in an indefinite meaning.

Alaric had, as he (i. e. Norman) thought, answered his love by treachery; and there was that in Norman's heart which would not allow him to forgive one who had been a traitor to him.

Trollope, *Three Clerks* p. 166.

Her facts impressed him — only her timorous deductions made him scoff. Yet there was that in her that struck his tongue to gentleness.

Phillpotts, *Forest on the Hill* ch. 4.

There are those who think the war a mere silly blunder on both sides.

Times Lit. 6/1, '16.

I have never tried, but I know those who have.
I know those who are still trying.

Temple Thurston, Thirteen I p. 3.

There are some who always demand the last ounce
of flesh; there are always those who return by the last
possible train. Waugh, Loom of Youth I ch. 1.

1119. The relation of the determinative to the local use is so close that it may be doubtful sometimes how to class a case. This seems to apply to the first quotation of 1117 b, and to the following sentence.

His mother parted her lips to begin some other vehement truth, but on looking at him she saw that in his face which led her to leave the words unsaid.

Hardy, Native III ch. 3 p. 237 f.

Anaphoric Use 1120. Both *this* and *that* are used to refer back to an idea mentioned before. They do not differ in meaning from the deictic use: they can, consequently, be used to point back to something in space or time, both actually and in thought; they can also be used affectively; *that* can be used as a determinative pronoun. Both agree with the deictic use in being used as adjectives, and as substantives, or at least as independent pronouns, i. e. referring to some noun mentioned before. The anaphoric pronouns are chiefly used in the latter function, because the noun to which they refer is not, usually, repeated.

1121. Anaphoric *this* and *these* point back to an idea still fresh in the speaker's mind (*a*). *That* and *those* are used to refer to an idea that is thought of as farther away; it is frequently used when a speaker resumes a conversation that has been interrupted, whereas *this* suggests an uninterrupted course of ideas (*b*). These differences are the natural results of the local distinctions of the two pronouns.

a. The black cabinet, or cellar, with the eagle-talons, found a place in the dining-room in the basement into which Fenwick was brought on the afternoon of his electrocution. Sally always thought of this cabinet as "Major Roper's cabinet," because she got the whiskey from it for him before he went off in the fog.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 25 p. 264.

His persuasiveness was amazing, and this is a rare quality in men of action. Times Lit. 4/11, '15.

Inglesant promised him to ride to Oxford, and see the Jesuit again. This he did the next day.

Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 10.

The advisers of the sovereign are responsible for his political acts; I must now tell you who these are.

The same view is expressed with greater force in the five sermons at the end. These, to our thinking, are the most valuable part of the volume.

Athen. 15/2, 1908.

b. "Put his wedding-ring on, mamma, to oblige me!" — "Very well, chick, — I don't mind." And so that point is settled. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 5 p. 45.

I am sure if ever anything was reasonable, that was.
ib. ch. 18 p. 177.

Her voice had not much softness of timbre, and perhaps on that account she kept it carefully subdued.

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

1122. The use of *that*, not *this*, in the last quotation of 1121 makes it clear that the observation is the author's, not the woman's. The same applies to this case, which should be read in its context to be appreciated fully:

The shrivelled voice of the heath did not alarm him (viz. the little boy), for that was familiar.

Hardy, *Native I* ch. 8 p. 85.

Sometimes *that* suggests that a writer is not going to dwell any longer on the subject, which would be expressed by *this*, as is done here by *this story*.

His garments had been made for him; that was all that could be said. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 1 p. 1.

... Of all that this story knows no more; Mr. Salter goes out of it. ib. p. 5.

1123. The result of the resumptive character of anaphoric *that* (mentioned in 1121) is that it is frequently found predicatively to refer to a preceding sentence, whether of the same speaker or of another. See 1142 ff. on *so*, *it* and *that*.

They would like the present to be like the past; but the present, if it is alive, never can be that.

Times Lit. 3/6, '15.

"They are a rough, heathenish set of fellows, these Milton men of yours."

"They are that," replied Mr. Thornton.

Gaskell, *North and South* ch. 15.

1124. In nominal sentences the neuter *this* and *that* can be used anaphorically as subjects to refer to persons mentioned before, but only to identify them; compare *it* in 922.

This anaphoric use is not identical with the deictic use discussed in 1109: in that case the sentence may be descriptive as well as identifying.

"Hullo! more signs of civilization! What a gorgeous commercial traveller!" — "Do you mean the man that just passed us in the pony-trap?" — "Yes, that man with the white hat and the velvet coat and the scarlet tie." — "That isn't a commercial traveller; it's our doctor; he's quite a gentleman, though you wouldn't think so to look at him." — "Is he an M. D.?" — "Oh no, he is only an M. R. C. S." Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 72.

1125. The distinction between identifying and descriptive nominal sentences is sometimes very subtle. There is no difficulty when the predicate denotes the person's name, because in that case the identity of subject and predicate is evidently the meaning of a sentence. But we can also partly or in-

completely identify a person by classifying him, as in the *that isn't a commercial traveller* of the preceding section. A classification can also be used, however, by way of describing a person who is known to hearer and speaker, and in such a case *he* or *she* would be used.

In the first of the following quotations the nominal sentence is identifying, and *this* agrees with our statement. But in the second we find *that* in a sentence that can hardly be interpreted otherwise than as descriptive.

"Yet Kate's not fat," she reflected, "it's I who am such a scarecrow. I wish I was Caterina." This was a sister of Roberto who had helped with the housework in Genoa. Kennedy, Constant Nymph p. 78.

But I was looking on her in brotherly sort, interested in her because she was Gerald March's sister. For that was a most deficient man in every other respect¹⁾.

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 11 § 2 p. 9.

1126. Anaphoric *this* and *that* can also be used affectively.

The solemn butler knew and welcomed him; he was subjected to no stage of delay, but ushered direct from the door to the dining-room, where Dr. Lanyon sat alone over his wine. This was a hearty, healthy, dapper, red-faced gentleman, with a shock of hair prematurely white, etc. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 17.

1127. *This* is sometimes used to summarize the preceding part of a sentence. Summarizing *this* is clearly a special case of the local use.

That Cyril's attitude to his mother was marked by a certain benevolent negligence—this Matthew knew.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 1 § 3.

1) It is doubtful whether the use of *that* in this sentence is genuine: the author uses the neuter pronoun with reference to persons, in a deictic function, on p. 10, 11 and 12 (twice), as if he were pleased with his 'find.'

Human pride and envy, human ambition and emulation, the desire to shine in the world — and to rise to a higher status — these... are the main causes of the war. The New Age (Poutsma p. 898).

1128. Anaphoric *that* has come to be used in an intensive meaning, without a distinct backward reference. The first of the following sentences shows a transitional case.

I only once heard Thackeray allude to his works, and that in a serio-comic spirit, which amused both him and us. Hole, Memories p. 84.

She could never have believed in the morning that her colourless inner world would before night become as animated as water under a microscope, and that without the arrival of a single visitor.

Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 131.

M. Valentin looked at these two placards and fancied he had met this highly subtle form of humour before, and that somewhat recently.

Chesterton, Innocence of F. Brown p. 9.

Similarly in this sentence.

He might remember that some people were not only Christians, but Church, and High Church at that.

Rose Macaulay, Told by an Idiot I ch. 3 p. 24.

We have the ordinary anaphoric *that* in the following sentence.

He was good at nothing except diabolo, and not very good at that. Same author, Lee Shore ch. 2 p. 25.

1129. We find anaphoric *that* when there is a prepositional adjunct or a clause qualifying the pronoun. This use is similar to the use of deictic *that* as a determinative pronoun (1117). In agreement with this parallelism, *this* is never used in this construction¹⁾.

1) Poutsma p. 917 quotes from Trollope, Framley Parsonage ch. 5: *She*

Few poets have left behind them material for their biographies so copious as we possess for that of Keats.

Times Lit. 30/11, '17.

The problem of English constitutional history has been that of reconciling the theory with the facts.

S. Low, Governance of England p. 5.

Earth holds no deeper loneliness than that upon a mountain's summit. Phillipotts, Beacon I ch. 1.

He certainly pictured himself in the midst of a society more intellectually varied than that in which he found himself. Sinister Street p. 541.

There was no mirror, at that date, in my room; that which stands beside me as I write, was brought there later on. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 110.

Dr. Ward's name may be added to those of Lord Bryce, Sir John Seeley, Mr. Fisher, Mr. Syme, and other distinguished writers on German history and German literature. Times Lit. 21/12, '17.

The oldest English laws that have come down to us are those of Ethelbert, King of Kent.

Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 1.

Our public schools are infinitely better than those of Locke's day. Athen. 21/9, '12.

In the following sentence *that* seems to be anticipatory.

No less than that of war or statecraft, the history of economics has its heroic ages.

Huxley, Vulgarity p. 10.

The words *history of economics*, though mentioned last, were in the writer's mind when he wrote *that of war*, so that we must conclude that the pronoun is really anaphoric here. Compare a similar use of *so*, in 1153.

1130. Anaphoric *those* is sometimes identical in meaning with the deictic pronoun in a determinative function.

had other things to vex her, besides this about Mr. Roberts. Note, however, that *this* is used in a deictic function here, although the noun to complete its meaning must be inferred from what precedes.

His real crimes were chiefly those of ingenious and wholesale robbery. Chesterton, Inn. of F. Brown p. 2.

1131. Anaphoric *that* in the function of 1129 may compete with the independent genitive; but only if the noun denotes a person and precedes. Of course the meaning must be that of the genitive, as in the first quotation of 1129, not the second; nor would the genitive be a suitable substitute in the last three sentences of 1129, as will be evident without any comment.

When the noun in the adjunct does not denote a person, it is also possible to use *the one*, as in the following cases.

There were two rocking-chairs with fluted backs covered by antimacassars, one on either side of the hearth. That to the left was still entitled "father's chair," ... Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1 § 3 p. 31.

But inwardly the news had given her a shock almost as sharp as that felt by him.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 15 p. 175.

See 1289 ff. on *one*.

1132. We sometimes find *this* and *that* grouped together, frequently by way of contrast to each other, both in their deictic (*a*) and in their anaphoric (*b*) function. Compare the last quotation of 1107 *b*.

a. This reader or that may disagree with Mr. Boyd on this point or that. Times Lit. 19/1, '17.

You must see that it won't be possible to pick and choose, to tell this and reserve that.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 36 p. 387.

Rosalind had got used to continual wonderment as to when and where Fenwick had come to know so well this thing and that thing he spoke of so familiarly.

de Morgan, Somehow Good 19 p. 182.

b. His trusted friend Sir Roger writes that Sir John
this and Sir William that have ‘come in’, ...

Mem. Verney Fam. II 168.

Gounod’s “Dites, la jeune belle” will be remembered
long after Franck’s “La Procession” is forgotten, although
this is better made than that. Times Lit. 5/8, '20.

Such 1133. *Such* is primarily a demonstrative adjective
expressing *of this* (or *that*) *quality*. It does not
distinguish between the first and the other persons.
Such is used both deictically (*a*) and anaphorically (*b*).
In the case of deictic *such* there is generally a clause
with *that* or an adjunct or clause with *as*, in other words
deictic *such* is anticipatory.

a. The weather was such that we did not go out.

He had borne himself with such gallantry as to attract
the attention of his superior officers. N E D.

Such books as these are useful.

b. These were the words of his text, and with such
a subject in such a place, it may be supposed that such
a preacher would be listened to by such an audience.

Trollope, Barchester ch. 6.

Perhaps the last sentence should rather be interpreted
as an illustration of intensive *such*. Intensive *such* is
current in spoken English; compare 1112 (intensive *that*)
and 1139 (intensive *so*).

Don’t put your bicycle in the hall; it’s such a
nuisance.

1134. *Such* meaning ‘of that quality, or kind’, may be
preceded by an indefinite pronoun, both in its deictic and
in its anaphoric use.

a. There is no such thing as a dumb poet or a handless
painter. Swinburne¹⁾.

1) N E D.

If there were any better people in the island (as I really hope there may have been, although the story tells nothing about any such) they staid quietly at home.

Hawthorne, Wonder Book p. 33.

There is no room for entertaining any such question.
John Stuart Mill, *Liberty*¹.

1135. The combination with *none* has produced the compound [nənsʌtʃ] *nonsuch*, meaning 'an unrivalled thing', or 'a person who has no equal.'

²) As for your Prince, . . . he's not a nonsuch.

The form *nonesuch* [nənsʌtʃ] is now exceptional; it has been selected by the founders of the *Nonesuch Press*.

1136. Such is also used to avoid the mention of a specific term (*a*); often with repetition: *such and such* (*b*).

a. This diploma is to certify that A. B.... attended a prescribed course of lectures... and (on such a date) satisfied... the examiners²⁾.

b. Lord and Lady Blank, of Suchandsuch Castle.

Thackeray, Newcomes ch. 45^{2).}

Number so-and-so in such-and-such a street.

Trollope, *La Beata I*, I. 2²).

1137. Such is also used to express that the quantity or number is restricted. Note that all singular nouns in this case are used without an article.

Such criticism as was heard turned almost exclusively upon points of detail. Times W. 18/1, '18.

I have not many, but I will send you such as I have.

It seems to have cooled the ardour of such of the

1) Ellinger p. 54 f.

2) NED.

Bishops as at first tended to favour Sinn Fein as a means of smashing the Irish Party.

Times Lit. 18/10, '18.

Such only who have been in parishes that have been for generations squireless, and also in those where a resident family has been planted for centuries, can appreciate the difference in general tone among the people. Baring-Gould, Old Country Life ch. 1.

The absence of the article is, of course, due to the pronominal character of *such*.

1138. *Such* is used to refer to a preceding argument and often serves to sum it up. In this case it may retain its meaning of *that quality* (*a*), but it is also used when it is a simple anaphoric pronoun like *that* (*b*).

a. Such is the constitution of the inhabitants of this dear Island of Britain, so falsely accused by the great Napoleon of being a nation of shopkeepers.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 2.

b. Blanche stood looking at the two officers; for such they were. Buchanan, That Winter Night ch. 4.

Such, then, were some of the channels in which the intense mental and physical energy of Dickens found a congenial outlet in these busy years.

Ward, Dickens ch. 4.

Demonstrative Adverbs

1139. The adverbs *here*, *there*, and *thus* are connected with the personal and demonstrative pronouns in form and meaning.

Here and *there* are used deictically and anaphorically. As in other cases they express both position and direction to a place; compare the interrogative-relative *where*.

Thus is hardly used in spoken English. In literary English it is chiefly used anaphorically, as an equivalent to the colloquial *like that*, not *like this*.

The adverb *so* is related to *such*; compare *such a good man* and *so good a man*. Its use as a deictic and anaphoric adverb of manner requires as little comment here as that of the other demonstrative adverbs. Like *such* (1133) it is used as an intensive, which use may be illustrated by a single example.

How do you like Tymperley?

Very nice. Just a little peculiar.

Oh he *is* peculiar! Quite original. I wanted to tell you about him before we went down, but there wasn't time. Such a very old friend of ours. My dear husband and he were at school together — Harrovians. The sweetest, the most affectionate character! Too good for this world, I'm afraid; he takes everything so seriously.

Gissing, A Poor Gentleman, Sel. Short Stories II 380.

So is also used in the predicate of verbal and nominal sentences to refer back to a preceding idea, in a way that may be compared to that of vicarious *do*. This use must be treated in some detail.

Anaphoric So 1140. It is well-known that there is no strict division possible between adverb adjuncts and objects (see *Sentence-Structure* in volume 3). This will be shown by many sentences with anaphoric *so* in the following sections. In other cases *so* appears completely as an object, if a vague one, resembling *it* or *that*, which can sometimes be substituted for *so*, although hardly without in some degree affecting the meaning by this substitution.

It may be instructive for some readers to compare this use of *so* in English with the use of *ci* and *vi* in Italian¹⁾ as a kind of personal pronouns, respectively of the first and second person plural: *il padre ci dà pane* (*Father gives us*, lit. *here, bread*), *il padre vi dà pane* (*Father*

1) *ci* < Latin *ecce hic*; *vi* < Latin *ibi*.

gives you, lit. there, bread); scrivici presto (*Write to us soon*). Anaphoric *so* is closely related to *as*, which might be classed as a relative adverb, but is usually called a conjunction, because it has functions that are unconnected with the relatives; of course, it is not formally related to the relative pronouns. Its uses will be here treated in the chapter on *Conjunctions*.

1141. *So* is used to refer back to a preceding sentence or to a preceding verb with its adjuncts. Being an adverb, *so* is accompanied by vicarious *do* as a substitute for the verbal element of the predicate, or by a copula in nominal sentences.

So referring to a Sentence 1142. We find *so* used to refer to the whole of a preceding sentence, when *so* is grouped with a verb expressing a feeling or with an expression of a feeling or opinion. Such verbs are *to say, to tell, to think, to hope, to suppose, to fear, to be afraid, to order, to believe, to see, to hear, to expect*¹⁾.

He will come in time, at least I hope so.

Did he know you were going away? — Yes, I told him so.

We were to drink tea at five; so mamma had ordered.

“But is such a thing possible?” — “I believe so.”

Wells, *Country of the Blind* p. 446.

“But what is the essential Balliol?” Michael demanded.

“Who could say so easily?” *Sinister Street* p. 583.

“I’m putting Master Bob to bed, sir,” she said, with a clutch at her cap. — “So I see,” said Michael, and asked for some hot water. Sidgwick, *Severins* p. 17.

“There are plenty of things you haven’t looked at yet . . .” “Yes,” she said. “I expect so.”

Bennett, *Anna ch. 8.*

1) In this case *expect* is equivalent to *suppose*. Note also that *to see* and *to order* can only be construed with *so* when this opens the sentence, i. e. is partly conjunctive, like *as*; see 1149 ff.

1143. Some of the verbs of 1042 can take noun-objects as well as clauses; some, however, such as *to hope*, *to suppose*, can take clause-objects only¹⁾. This suggests the reason why *so* is used: in all these cases the object-character of *so* is not evident.

In agreement with this we find that when these verbs are construed with an object and predicative adjunct, *it* is used as an object (*a*), and *so* as a predicative adjunct (*b*).

a. He has sold his house. — I think it a great pity.

Parliamentary suffrage is not that goal of women's aims which some have supposed it. Times Ed. S. 3/7, '19.

b. In Mr. Hardy's case, however, the supernatural beings (if so we call them) have to support a definite philosophic doctrine. Edinb. Rev. April 1908.

As if the age were the injury! He seemed to think it so. Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 1.

But Goethe had a religion too, though he did not call it so. Times Lit. 9/12, '20.

She made life interesting just because she found it so. Times Lit. 29/10, 14.

Martin says that a thing is only impossible when we think it so. Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 3 p. 35.

The definitely object character of the noun in the case of verbs taking this construction has also been adduced as the reason why the verbal can only be an ing here, not a stem; see 367 ff.

1144. *So* may also refer to a preceding sentence in other cases, for example after *if* and *why*. The latter is exclusively literary.

Has the reader forgotten Miss Ginevra Fanshawe? If so, I must be allowed to re-introduce that young lady. Brontë, Villette ch. 9.

1) A clause depending upon *to suggest* would be best interpreted as an adverb clause of purpose in most cases.

"Mamma, I do not like Jane —" that was our new house-parlourmaid.

"Why so?" I asked. Baring-Gould in *Swaen* I p. 1.

So with Vicarious Do 1145. *So* accompanies vicarious *do* to refer to a preceding verb with its adjuncts.

She could not have said why she told him this; an instant before she spoke, she had no intention of doing so.

Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 10.

(His eyes) were also very much lighter, and of so light and clear a blue as to make his face remarkable, if nothing else did so. Trollope, *Barchester* ch. 9.

Mr. Povey, free to reconnoitre, did so.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* I ch. 6 § 2.

It is evident, in short, that the Utopians set much store by Greek, but that they did so chiefly on account of the knowledge to which that language was the key.

Edinb. Rev. Oct. 1905.

Although here and there a few students would prefer to take up mathematics, natural science, or commercial subjects, the number who did so was comparatively small.

ib.

In literary English *so* is sometimes used without the verb *to do*, when there is another auxiliary.

But let the author explain himself (if so he can) in the words of his preface. Edinb. Rev. April 1908.

In spoken English we should say: *if he can do so*, or *if he can*.

So with to be 1146. *So* may refer to a preceding nominal predicate, usually an adjective or a noun (*a*) or the participle of a group-passive (*b*). It can also refer to a predicative adjunct to the object (*c*), as shown in 1143 *b*.

a. He had been weak but he would be so no longer.
Montgomery, *Misunderstood* ch. 13.

England was a Christian country and likely to remain so.
Wakeman, p. 29.

But we also speak of the king as sovereign because he once was so in reality. Gill, Government p. 111.

Nothing could be meaner than the subject, the progress of a parish or workhouse boy, nothing less so than its treatment. Forster-Gissing.

She had never argued the matter within herself, or considered whether this common tone was or was not faulty; but she was sick of it without knowing that she was so. Trollope, Barchester.

The garden is all round the house, but the principal part is on the south side, and has evidently always been so.

"She is so shy."

"Oh yes, she used to look it."

"No, that's her peculiarity, that she never looks it, and yet she is intensely so."

Henry James, Reverberator.

This was not done everywhere, but it was so to a large extent in the south.

Baring-Gould, Old Country Life ch. 1.

b. All previous experience was cut away from him, or seemed so. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 10 p. 89.

c. (I) was once a Catholic — at least my guardians tried to make me so. Thomas, Lafcadio Hearn p. 14.

1147. When *so* refers to a predicative noun it is because a predicative noun often has the function of an adjective rather than of a noun; see the sections on the absence of the article before predicative nouns. When the predicative noun has a distinctly nominal function *so* is not used.

Poland had been an important national state once; yet nobody foresaw that it would be one after the war was over.

1148. Although the function of *so* is very similar to that of the pronouns there is this difference that *so* can KRUISINGA, Handbook II. *Accidence and Syntax.* 2. 15

have front-position where the personal pronoun cannot (*a*). It can also precede the verb; this place of *so* is rather literary than colloquial (*b*).

a. Was he not going to preach on behalf of the Papuan Mission next Sunday? Ah! so he, the Bishop, heard. Trollope, *Framley ch. 3.*

b. But various excuses were made for him by those who so believed. Trollope, *Last Chronicle of Barset ch. 47.*

"Of course you know that Harold Smith is going to give a lecture about these islanders?" ... Mark said that he had been so informed. ib.

Some of these cases may be mentioned specially in the following sections.

1149. *So* must be put at the head of the sentence, with a subject and the auxiliary of the preceding sentence, or vicarious *do*, either to confirm a preceding statement (*a*), or to apply the predicate of the preceding sentence to a new subject (*b*). The front-position of *so* is the result of the necessity to give emphatic end-position to the auxiliary in the first case, and to the subject in the second; it also makes the word conjunctive. See 434 ff.

a. He says he can do it. — So he can.

He told me he went home. — So he did.

"Till lately you were always a good churchman!"

"So I am, my dear," he answered, "but not bigoted."

Pickthall, *Larkmeadow, ch. 16 p. 105.*

All this sounds very bewildering, and so it is.

Times Lit. 26/10, 17.

"You forget, Miss Walker, that Mrs. Proudie is in authority over me." — "So she is, for the matter of that," said the young lady.

Trollope, *Last Chron. ch. 20.*

She was pretty sure to be there. And so she was, and by ten o'clock had seen the card and exhausted its contents. de Morgan, *Somehow Good ch. 18 p. 174.*

b. My companions were dejected and so was I.

Rutherford, Autobiography p. 114.

The Lombards were aliens; but so were the Greeks.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 38.

He has done his best. — So have I.

I did my best. — So did he.

The trade of London steadily increased and so did its population. Inns of Court and of Chancery p. 6.

Blandley thereupon returned to his toil; so did John Brough to his. Niven, Porcelain Lady ch. 4.

1150. No vicarious *do* is used when the preceding statement contains the verb *to have*. See 625 ff.

"She had a large heart." — "So she had," said Scrooge.

Erasmus had reason on his side; but so, too, had Aquinas. Davis, Med. Europe p. 7.

1151. In the case mentioned under 1149 *b* the contrast between the subjects is expressed by end-position of the second subject. Of course, *too*, *also* can be added; they are necessary when there is no verb or auxiliary, as in the last sentence.

I was grieved for many reasons, and so was mother also. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 46.

The sections concerning traditional games, dances, plays and pageants, and local customs are excellent, and so, too, are those relating to persons.

Athenaeum, 27/7, 12.

Mystery is attractive, but so also is transparency.

Mrs. Henry de la Pasture, Cornhill Magaz., Sept. 1912.

Dryden.... caught a little of their fine tact and consummate workmanship without lessening his own originality; so also did Pope.

Dennis, Age of Pope p. 4.

Shakespeare uses compounds freely, so also Shelley, Keats, etc.

1152. We sometimes find *so* opening the sentence, when the preceding predicate is repeated (*a*), or referred to by a second *so* (*b*). In this case the *so* that opens the sentence has its adverb function, meaning *in this way, in the same way*.

a. "Paulina is at least sincere, don't you think?"
"So is Tessa sincere."

Kennedy, Constant Nymph p. 179.

b. "Ginevra saw you, I think?" — "So do I think so. I have had my eye on her several times."

Brontë, Villette ch. 20.

"I do hope you will go home soon," he added. "Yes," said Richard, "and I, so do I hope so."

Meredith, Feverel ch. 26.

1153. Very occasionally, *so* is used to refer forward. It is essentially the same, however, as the usual anaphoric *so*. See 1129.

"So do I," said Michael. "Nothing would induce me to use it." — Michael did not say *so* to his sisters, but he knew by this time that he would have had an easier task if his mother had supported him consistently.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 7 p. 65.

I have never, when I could have done so, taken the trouble to read original reviews of this little book; and am not now in a position to do it.

Saintsbury, in Essays Engl. Assoc. VI p. 52.

1154. An idea may also become so vague in the mind of the speaker that no referring word is used at all; see 1163. This is especially the case:

1. in the questions and answers discussed in 425 ff.

(425). We are not a critical audience, are we, Mr. Walsingham? Sidgwick, The Severins.

(426). "You — you're only doing that to frighten me," stammered Miss Spencer, in a low, quavering voice.
 "Am I?" Nella replied, as firmly as she could.

Bennett, Grand Babylon Hotel.

(438). "Have you seen him?" "I have."

2. when the auxiliary is repeated in an appended statement to emphasize one's conviction of its truth (430) or to deny it (437).

(430). He's nasty is Tom Tamlin. Vachell, Quinneys'.

"Yes," said Uncle Charlie, enjoying the joke; "it will be fine fun for you and Miles, won't it?"

"Oh, won't it," echoed Humphrey, jumping down from his chair, and capering about.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 1.

(437). He is always very kind. — I am sure he isn't.

3. with a number of verbs. Some of these never take *so: to try, to care, to forget.*

You have broken a plate; I'll tell your mother.

Does your father know your plan? — No, but I'll tell him.

Have you done it? Tell me.

You cannot do that. — Let me try.

He is a very influential man. — I know, but I don't care.

It is perfectly true, I assure you.

Was it nine o'clock when he came? — I forgot.

Did you ever leave him in the room alone? — I cannot say, Ma'am, perhaps I did.

"Of course everything is changed now." "Indeed?" murmured Mrs. Baines with polite curiosity. "Yes," said Miss Chetwynd. "You've not heard?"

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 3 § 5.

"George," she said in an awe-stricken whisper, "did you see?" Wells, Country of the Blind p. 19.

But *it* could not be omitted in the following passage, because the idea represented by it is quite definite, and

because *to tell* without an object would express 'to distinguish'.

The life of a quiet, steady-going undergraduate has been told in a score of novels better than I can tell it.
Butler, Way of all Flesh p. 199.

1155. The reason why *so* is not used in the first two cases is that the auxiliary of the preceding sentence is repeated, and the two sentences are so closely connected that they are rather to be looked on as only apparently double sentences.

We also find the repetition of the auxiliary cause the same effect when the two successive sentences, though closely connected, are really double.

You think you are strong enough to lift him up and make a man of him. But *you're not*.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 9.

Mother and I were not delighted, though we pretended to be.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 7.

Wild and inhospitable? Well, if any region on the earth's surface deserves the adjectives, that region does.

London Magazine July 1918 p. 369.

"Every person has a right to take care of themselves. He always did". — "That's true indeed!" said the laundress. "No man more so." Dickens, Carol St. 4.

We're happy now that he has come — or, at any rate ought to be. Trollope, Three Clerks ch. 5.

So in Literary English **1156.** The use of *so* is found in genuine colloquial English. But the use of *so* with vicarious *do* (1145) is less usual in spoken English than the other cases.

With verbs of *will* we find *so* used in literary English only.

If any one had asked him if he wanted to own her soul, the question would have seemed to him both

ridiculous and sentimental. But he did so want, and the writing said he never would.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 5 p. 76.

The literary character of this construction also accounts for the position of *so*. In spoken English *it* or *that* would be used, or suspended *to*.

The use of *so* is also contrary to the uses of spoken English in these sentences.

Don't call me censorious, Mark; you know I am not so. Trollope, *Framley* ch. 1.

Mrs. Harold Smith had only just managed to catch Miss Dunstable before she left London; but she did do so. Trollope, *Framley* ch. 38 p. 363.

Demonstratives combined with much

1157. The addition of *much* to the neuter pronouns and to *so* gives these groups a connotation of limitation, producing the anticipatory *this much* (*a*) and the anaphoric *that much* (*b*). The combinations *as much*, *so much* are used in the same sense (*c*). Similarly we find anaphoric *this far as* an adverb adjunct (*d*). *So much* is more intensive than *as much*; see 1139.

a. But this much is certain that his efforts to induce Churchmen to work with him were increased rather than diminished. Shorthouse, *Inglesant* ch. 6.

It is true that Ruskin had this much justification for his attitude that the economists of his day were "a little arrogant." Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

b. You must know that he isn't free from creditors, Molly. You can't have been one of the family, like a child of the house almost, without knowing that much. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 8.

She admitted that much in some moods; but not even that much always. Phillpotts, *Beacon* I ch. 9.

c. The old woman apparently anticipated as much. Black, *Princess of Thule*. NED.

I thought as much.

NED.

Both are anxious that the world should be priest-governed; though they have probably never confessed so much, even to themselves.

Trollope, Barchester Towers ch. 4.

d. This far Henry VIII. proceeded in the delicate and dangerous task. Wakeman, Introd. p. 255.

Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns and Adverbs

1158. When used as a noun, *this (these)* is often almost equivalent to a personal pronoun. Sometimes *this (these)* is used in the first reference, because the idea is still fresh in the speaker's mind, and the idea is referred to a second time by the personal pronoun; but the strongly-stressed personal pronoun may also be used first, as in the last quotation. The personal pronoun does not express the difference between *this* and *that*.

We shall never have too many guns. These are things that cannot be created in a day, and they are things that wear out. Times W. 23/2, '17.

There appear to be no Negritos, or, in other words, Pygmies, in Borneo, though these are found in the Malay Peninsula, the Philippines, and elsewhere in this region. Athenaeum 28/12, '12.

There were a large number of books containing marginal notes by Mr. Lang, though I doubt if these will be of much use to any one, as Mr. Lang's calligraphy was execrable. Everyman.

It has been clearly shown that the metrical structure of all plays known to be early in date differs profoundly from that of all plays known to be late; while every intermediate stage between this early and this late verse is also found.

Seccombe and Allen, Age of Shakespeare II 112.

He meant no deceit, and yet he had told himself within the last hour that he should never see another

summer. He could not tell even his daughter that after such a life as this, after more than fifty years spent in the ministration of his darling cathedral, it specially behoved him to die, — as he had lived, — at Barchester. He could not say this to his eldest daughter; but had his Eleanor been at home, he could have said it to her.

Trollope, Last Chronicle ch. 49.

Delays there were, but they were, as a rule, of short duration. Everyman, 24/12, '12.

Such words are called 'learned', and the distinction between them and 'popular' words is of great importance to a right understanding of linguistic process.

Greenough and Kittredge, Words and their Ways p. 19.

The result of all this is that a book like Mr. Trevelyan's has quite a different part to play from that played by his Garibaldi books or by his Grey and Bright. In them he was an explorer, bringing us new knowledge; in this he is a mapmaker, arranging and clarifying what we already possessed. Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

So, it, and that **1159.** In some cases *it* is used as well as *so*. We only find *it*, however:

- (1) with the verbs conveying an opinion (1142);
- (2) with the verb *to do* (1145);
- (3) with the verbs expressing will (1156).

1. My conscience showed me as clearly as possible that there was baseness in the whole manner of getting leave for this visit. It seemed to say, "When did Ned's parents ask you? If ever, certainly not just now. And yet, this is what you want your parents and your master to believe, though you don't exactly say it."

Sweet, Spoken English.

The use of *it* here is preferable because it refers more definitely to the very words of the preceding sentence; whereas *so* would refer to the sentence as a whole.

Compare also:

"Macchiavelli!" she simply exclaimed.

"You do me too much honour. I wish indeed I had his genius. However, if you really believed I had his perversity you would not say it¹⁾." Henry James, *Golden Bowl*.

Lord Lufton should not marry among his dependants. Lady Lufton would not have used the word but she did think it. Trollope, *Framley*, ch. 35 p. 340.

You're as green as the grass, but you do 'ave some of my brains. I ain't a-goin' to argue with you for one minute. Don't think it! Vachell, *Quinneys* p. 161.

Right you are, James, even if I do say it. ib. p. 218.

Does technical knowledge exclude the "common sense" which is worth more? We should be sorry to think it, and we do not think it. *Athenaeum*, 29/7, 1905.

If this plot were altogether the Jesuits', John Inglesant would not say it. Shorthouse, *John Inglesant*.

The suspicion of his having come to impart the news of his proximate marriage ultimately endowed her with sovereign calmness. She had need to think it, and she did. Meredith, *Diana*.

2. Oh! by the way, here's a letter for Mr. Coxe. Don't send it through the women; take it round yourself to the surgery door, and do it at once.

Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 5.

When the popes sent legates, demanded taxes, controlled appointments, collected money in the thirteenth century, it was often difficult to say whether they did it by virtue of their ecclesiastical or their feudal position.

Wakeman, *Introduction* p. 126.

In these cases *to do* is a verb with full meaning rather than a substitute for a preceding verb. See the last quotation of 1156.

3. "Will you promise?" she cried . . . "If you wish it," he said, forced to yield. Bennett, *Leonora* ch. 40.

1) Here *it* refers to the word *Macchiavelli*, whereas *so* would refer to a whole sentence, like: *You are as perverse as Macchiavelli*. See also the quotation following this one.

1160. *It* is not used with *to be* (1146), nor is it used as a predicative adjunct (1146 *c*). It has already been remarked that anaphoric *it*, being weak-stressed, cannot have front-position (1148 ff.). The reason for the restricted use of *it* is evidently to be looked for in its character of a noun; and in the adjectival character of predicative adjuncts.

The noun character of *it* explains why it must be used, to the exclusion of *so*, when the *words* of the preceding sentence must be referred to, not the thought expressed by the sentence; see the comment on the quotation from Henry James in 1159.

The noun character of *it* is also the cause why it can be used as a nominal predicate in sentences expressing the identity of subject and predicate.

(She) told him she must have his consent to a step
she was contemplating ...

"Why should I refuse my consent to your marrying
Fenwick? Because that's it, I suppose?"

That was it. The Major had guessed right.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 14 p. 130.

1161. *That* is used anaphorically in the same functions as *so*. *That* and *it* are more definite than *so*, but *that* has a stronger stress than *it*. *That* is used in all the four cases where we may find *so* (1142 ff.).

(1142). "He thinks that if you would give him time he could catch up again." "They all think that," said the Earl, looking rather black. Burnett, *Little Lord* ch. 6.

As a matter-of-fact, it does not do much more than keep the rain out, though, of course, I don't tell her exactly that. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 24 p. 258.

(1145). "I shall look in at the Deanery on Saturday, unless you send me a postcard and tell me not to come." — "Why should I do that?" — "Oh, well, you might, you know. But if you don't do that, I shall come and look at the tennis."

But it is time for Edwin and Hilda to come up in the world. And that they do. Times Lit. 20/1, 16.

"But you drew down the blinds," said the young man.
"My brother did that. Never mind..."

Sidgwick, Severins p. 24.

(1146 a). The thing is to be free all round in this world, and only the poor can be that. Phillpotts, Forest ch. 3.

The world for him seems a stage and all its men and women mere players; and it is one of life's truest paradoxes that, directly they seem that, they cannot be made into a play. Quarterly Rev. July 1913, p. 235.

Her mother, my friend Mrs. Verity, was a dear. Not clever; she never pretended to be that. Not a firm character; she certainly never pretended to be *that*¹⁾!

Berta Ruck, The Clouded Pearl I ch. 2 p. 10.

I used just now, in speaking of Ulstermen, the word "nation." They are that in a more vivid sense than ever before, and this is the work of Sir Edward Carson.

Times 5/6, 14.

(1146 b). I makes me so angry when I hear her called cold and conceited! The girls at the club don't call her that. Wharton, House of Mirth p. 127.

1162. The use of *this* is quite exceptional in these functions. In the following sentence it is probably a literary use.

'Try not to be cynical, my pet,' said Leila Yorke, who was never this.

Rose Macaulay, Potterism I ch. 1 § 1 p. 4.

1163. We also find emphatic *that* in cases of repetition of the auxiliary; here neither *it* nor *so* could be used (1154).

"I am sorry you have been in trouble", she said, — "Oh, that we have, Miss, and it's on'y just beginning."

Mrs. Wharton, House of Mirth p. 97.

I'm sorry as my wife's away²⁾, that I am.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale IV ch. 4 § 3.

1) Italics in the original. 2) Dialectal *as*.

"And so I never went again; and I was very glad of it, for it was a horrid place." — "That it was," said Molly.
Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 19 p. 326.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

Forms 1164. The definite article, being a proclitic word, is naturally weak-stressed. It varies according to the sound that follows, and is:

(1) [ðə] before non-syllabic sounds:

[ðə mæn] *the man*; [ðə histəri] *the history*;

(2) [ði] before syllabic sounds:

[ði ould mæn] *the old man*; [ði əʊə(r)] *the hour*;

Exceptionally it is strongly stressed:

He is the [ði] man you want.

The definite article is the [ði].

Before initial *h* in weak-stressed syllables the usual form is [ðə]; but [ði] is also heard before the same words (with loss of *h*). Thus *Sweet*, Primer of Spoken English, p. 82: [ðis hœtel]; p. 84 [ði ɔutel]. See 306.

The uncertainty, or variety, is naturally due to the phonetic character of the aspirate, which also causes phoneticians some trouble when they must classify it.

1165. The definite article is written *the*. But it is not indicated in writing before Roman or Arabic numbers used to denote ordinal numbers, when following the word they qualify.

James II. (or James II) = James the Second.

Chapter 10 = Chapter the tenth (or the tenth Chapter, or Chapter ten).

October 15 (or 15th), 1910 = October the fifteenth, nineteen hundred and ten (occasionally *October fifteenth* etc.).

Compare:

the 10th (or 10th) Chapter.

the 15th (or 15th) of October, 1910.

1166. The use of the definite article, and still more its absence, is often a matter of tradition depending upon the systems of grammar in older periods of English. But the traditional uses have generally been retained only as far as they agree with the structure of the sentence in living English, in other words: these traditional uses have been re-interpreted, and have been retained for that very reason. Thus it may be that in *to send word* the noun has no article because it represents an old form *word* used in the plural meaning, but the group continues to be used in living English because its structure is the same as that of such groups as *to set fire to*, *to pay attention to*, in which the verb is the subordinate element of a close group, not an independent element as in *to send a letter*, *to pay one's bills*, in which the noun is an evident class-noun, serving as an object, so that it must take an article or another qualifier. Other traditional uses do not form part of the structure of living English, and are therefore isolated remains that can be 'explained' historically as regards their origin, not as regards their position in living English.

1167. The definite article is a weak form of the demonstrative. Its uses can be distinguished as:

- (1) demonstrative;
- (2) defining;
- (3) classifying.

The use of *the* before comparatives is so little related to its other uses, qualifying, as it does, adjectives and adverbs and not nouns, that we must class it as an adverb¹⁾.

1) That *the* in this function represents an instrumental case of the

Demonstrative Article

1168. In dealing with the definite article in living English we shall apply the method that has been followed in dealing with other words that are partly or completely form-words, without a meaning, or without a distinct meaning, of their own: we start from those uses in which the greatest amount of independent meaning can be traced.

The definite article may be looked upon as a weak demonstrative pronoun in a number of traditional phrases. It is weaker than the demonstrative *this* and *that*, both in a phonetic and in a semantic sense. Like these pronouns it can be used deictically (1) and anaphorically (2) to express place or time. The article corresponds to *this* (*a*) and *that* (*b*).

(1) *a.* It will be just the thing for them at *the* moment.
Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 7.

I cannot remember it for the moment.

b. *The* same day I received the note, I went to the Tombs.
Sel. Short Stories III 223.

Eustacia felt a wild jealousy of Thomasine on the instant.
Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 175.

It was Saturday; she had left Paris on the Thursday.
Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 3.

Mrs. P., however, was at the moment inaccessible to remonstrance.
Wharton, House of Mirth.

As far as there can be said to have been any leader at the beginning of the Oxford movement, he was the man²⁾.
Wakeman, p. 456.

I was used to Gerald, but at the moment, at her sudden whisper, I would have liked to murder him.
Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 13.

(demonstrative) pronouns is, naturally, of no importance for its interpretation in Modern English.

2) Perhaps the article before *man* is anaphoric rather than deictic.

(2) *a.* The next step to be undertaken was the revival of discipline. No sooner had the Church finally emerged from the struggle with the Danes, than she addressed herself seriously to *the* question. Wakeman, Introd. p. 64.

b. I didn't know it at the time.

The streets were, at *the* instant, almost deserted.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 5 p. 194.

Here are the particulars of an imaginary case of *the* sort. de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 7 p. 56.

Instead of requesting him to enter, she came to the porch. A discourse was carried on between them in low, measured tones for the space of ten minutes or more. At the end of *the* time Mrs. Yeobright went in, and Venn sadly retraced his steps into the heath.

Hardy, Native II ch. 7 p. 190.

1169. The definite article when meaning *that* has been distinguished as deictic (1 *b*) and anaphoric (2 *b*). But it must be acknowledged that all the cases quoted in 1 *b* may be interpreted as anaphoric.

It will be observed that in all the traditional phrases quoted it would be possible to substitute *this* (in 1 *a* and 2 *a*) or *that* (in the other cases) without materially altering the sense. But the anaphoric article also occurs in free use; in that case the substitution of a demonstrative is not always possible, as is shown by the following sentences.

It is suggested that a candidate, before commencing his course of study, should undergo a thorough medical examination. By such an examination any serious physical disqualification would be revealed, and *the* candidate probably spared expense and the mortification of rejection. Public Schools' Year-Book, 1914.

"Is dinner ready?" she asked.

"Yes, m'm."

"Then ring the gong. And tell Carpenter...."

The gong sounded; the dinner was brought in.

Bennett, Leonora ch. 7.

The reason why *this* or *that* cannot be substituted in the first of these cases is that the demonstrative pronoun would individualize the word *candidate*, whereas it must be taken here in a general sense. And *that gong* is impossible for similar reasons. See 1178 on the classifying article. Conversely, it would be impossible to substitute the article for *that* in this sentence:

She looked vaguely about our lane. I was proud of our lane at *that* moment, for it set off the colour of her hat so well. Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 8.

1170. The deictic use of the article, like that of deictic *this* and *that*, may lead to an affective use. The affective article is chiefly used with proper names of persons qualified by an adjective.

So, too, the good Arbuthnot cherished the friendship of Swift. Whibley, Thackeray.

The picture he presents of the young Crabbe is clear and convincing. Academy 23/3, 1907.

All these things had extremely endeared her to the tender-hearted Mrs. Hamley. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 13.

"He is a man," says the puzzled Pepys, three years after the Restoration, "of great business, and yet of pleasure and dissipation." Green, Short Hist. p. 642.

Marlborough could persuade alternately and simultaneously obstinate James and the cold, inscrutable William. He could persuade that exasperating, wooden, procrastinating, thwarting Dutch Slangerberg and the slow, sluggish Pensionary Heinsius.

Times Lit. 4/11, '15.

1171. Deictic *the* may also have a meaning similar to that of the determinative demonstratives.

She was not of the creatures who are excited by an atmosphere of excitement.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 9.

The Defining and the Classifying Article

1172. In the preceding sections it has been shown that the definite article has functions that clearly range it with the demonstrative pronouns. These functions are not its essential and characteristic functions, however. In living English the most important uses of the definite article are those that may be termed:

- (1) *defining*;
- (2) *classifying*.

Defining Article

1173. The defining function of the definite article may be looked upon as a development of its primary use as a deictic pronoun. The article, similarly to the pronoun, serves to identify or individualize the noun.

All nouns take the defining article when they are made definite by an adjunct or clause (*a*). This applies also to proper names (*b*).

a. My father is *the* curate of a village church; about five miles from Amwell. I was born in *the* parsonage-house, which joins the church-yard.

Mary Lamb in Sel. Short Stories II p. 1.

The age of Elizabeth saw the defeat of the Armada and the rise of England as a great sea-power.

Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 53.

It seems safe to predict that the trade-returns for the remainder of the year will not come up to the average of the first seven years.

b. "You must be the Mr. Brant about whom he has so often talked," she said.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 8 § 3 p. 229.

This was the Italy of the past, the Italy which lived not for herself, but for the world. Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

But all these fancies were forgotten in inquiries and

speculations when on the Wednesday next but one after the Monday of the explosion, Plattner returned.

Wells, *Country p. 212.*

1174. Adjuncts with *of* cause the headword to take the definite article when they are genitive-equivalents (*a*); but prepositional adjuncts do not necessarily make the noun definite (*b*).

a. To the surprise of everyone, himself included, he was successful.

The ship was under the command of Captain Parker.

At the request of the chairman people stopped smoking.

b. Fondness of talking is not a proof of ability to speak in public.

A man of sense would have known what to do in such circumstances.

A letter in recommendation of Mr. W. as a clerk.

But compare also the following quotation.

Later on Fielding became stipendiary magistrate and had many opportunities for observing crime and the life in prisons. Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 109.

1175. A noun may also be made definite by the situation.

An exceptionally well-built man in a blue serge suit walked into a bank in the City, and, handing his card across the counter, asked if credit had been wired for him from New York. The clerk to whom he spoke would enquire. de Morgan, *Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 1.*

1176. The defining article is sometimes used as an introductory pronoun; see 1314. Thus it is often found in short stories. One of these, *The Stolen Bacillus* by Wells, e.g. opens as follows:

"This again," said the Bacteriologist, slipping a glass slide under a microscope, "is, well — a preparation of the Bacillus of cholera — the cholera germ."

Wells, *Country of the Blind p. 41.*

The reason here is clearly that in a short story there is no time for introductions; acquaintance is taken for granted.

1177. The defining function is also clear in adjuncts to proper names, expressing the rank or office or giving further information. The article often suggests personal interest (1170).

It is officially announced that Mr. Stanley Baldwin, the Unionist member for Bewdley, has been appointed a Junior Lord of the Treasury. *Times W. 2/2, '17.*

On the 8th inst. the Education Bill received the Royal Assent. The first thought which will occur to those versed in Parliamentary practice, if not to the general public, will be to congratulate Mr. Fisher, the President of the Board of Education and the principal author of the Act. *ib. 16/8, '18.*

Alexandra College, the pioneer amongst women's colleges, founded a year before Girton, is well known externally to Dubliners. *Times Ed. S. 2/11, '16.*

The affective element seems to be specially marked in appositions, where *the* is often equivalent to 'the well-known, the famous'.

.... the diary of a soldier, Daniel Nicol, who spent the last thirty years of his life in the warehouse of Cadell, *the* publisher of Scott's novels. *Athenaeum.*

The denial of a hearing to Sir Victor Horsley, *the* President of the Council of the Association and one of the most brilliant of living specialists, was a deplorable exhibition. *Times.*

Messrs. Macmillan & Co. will publish shortly 'Wealth and Welfare', by Mr. A. C. Pigou, *the* Professor of Political Economy at Cambridge. *Athenaeum 26/10, '12.*

Classifying Article

1178. The classifying article differs from the demonstrative and the defining article in one important point: it is used with class-nouns only.

Before the stem of class-nouns the classifying article may denote one as the representative of a class (*a*), or as a synonym for the whole group (*b*). In the first meaning the construction varies with plural class-nouns without the article (*c*). Plural class-nouns with the article denote a complete group (*d*).

a. There hardly can be a history of the English borough, for each borough has its own history.

Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 52.

Among the animals which have moulded the face of the earth as we now see it the beaver takes a singular place.

Times Lit. 22/?, '14.

The modern librarian suffers from an absolute excess of virtue.

Baker, Uses of Libraries p. 3.

But the modern mind is unable as yet to distinguish between Superstition and Religion: because it will not have the one, it rejects the other. It pours *the baby* away with the bath-water.

Prospectus of the New Adelphi, 1929.

b. The most interesting events in animal life observed in this spot relate to *the cuckoo* in the spring in 1900.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. I p. 13.

c. Tramps slouched into the recess and struck matches on the panels; children kept shop upon the steps; the schoolboy had tried his knife on the mouldings; and for close on a generation no one had appeared to drive away these random visitors or to repair their ravages.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

d. A shy man's lot is not a happy one. The men dislike him, the women despise him, and he dislikes and despises himself.

Jerome, Idle Thoughts.

Scarcely in autumn have the leaves begun to drop from their high perches silently downward when the birds begin to drop away from the bare boughs silently southward.

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 2.

1179. We find an instructive alternation of the stem

with an article and the plural noun without in the following sentences.

Of animal life, if we except the birds, there is little in these islands. *The whale* has been hunted to extinction; *reindeer*, generally supposed to have crossed the ice from Nova Zembla, travelling across the frozen Polar seas by way of Franz Josef Land, are scarce; *the Polar bear* and *the walrus* are also rare and accidental visitors; *seals* are fairly numerous, and so is *the fox* — another migrant across the ice.

Ill. London News, in Kooistra and Schutt, Reader II 108.

Instead of trial by battle they could submit their case to a jury of neighbours; and the weapons of *the military expert* were thus superseded by the verdicts of *peaceful citizens*¹⁾. Pollard, Hist. of Engl. ch. 2 p. 47.

1180. Sometimes the alternative form is out of the question, for evident reasons.

... and though he enjoyed *the theatre*, (he) had not crossed the doors of one for twenty years.

Stevenson, Jekyll ch. 1.

1181. The article also has a classifying function before class-nouns followed by a proper name. On combinations of titles with proper names see 1387 ff.

He meant to reach the cottage of the labourer Tryst before that early bird was away to the fields.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 10.

The lad Robert craved that some task might be entrusted to him. Pett Ridge, Garland.

The splendid epic Beowulf is the only great Pre-Christian saga of the Anglo-Saxons that has survived.

Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 10.

1) Of course, this case is not exactly parallel to the preceding: there must be a number of citizens for one verdict; but note that *verdict* is in the plural.

One of these was the gasfitter Charles; another was the watchmaker Lestrange.

The widow Osborne; the pilot Barendsz.; the executioner Samson; the apostle St. Paul; the Virgin Mary.

The planet Mercury. The name Polonius.

Nouns expressing trades or professions sometimes follow the proper name, forming an apposition without any pause. This order is usual in the case of names of kings.

Nixon the hatter. Carker the manager.

William the Conqueror.

1182. The classifying article is used in free groups of an attributive proper name and a noun denoting a building or a locality, as in *the Savoy Hotel, the South Kensington Museum, the Albert Hall; the Iffley Road, the Clarendon Hotel, the Suez Canal, the Thames basin, the Nile valley*.

On traditional groups such as *Victoria Station, Bayswater Road*, see 1393.

The names of oceans, all adjectives, seem to be similar in their structure, except that the word *ocean* is rarely added: *the Atlantic, the Pacific, the Mediterranean*, etc.

1183. Before the names of the points of the compass, names of seasons, and parts of the day, the classifying article is often used, although the old construction without the article is also frequent, especially in prepositional adjuncts¹⁾. Of course, the use of the defining and the demonstrative article before these nouns is the same as before other nouns. Thus it could not be omitted before *night* in a sentence like *The night was very chilly*. See 1378.

1184. Geographical class-nouns are generally connected with proper names by the preposition *of* (*the kingdom of*

1) For details, see Poutsma II p. 545 ff.

Holland, etc.; see *Prepositions*). But *river* and *Mount* do not take *of*. In these cases *mount* is not preceded by the article; the same applies to *cape* and *lake* in many names of capes and lakes. See 1390.

On the banks of the rivers Ticinus and the Trebia.
Goodspeed, Hist. p. 304.

The River Thames.

Mount Snowdon. Cape Finisterre.

1185. The classifying article is used before proper names with a plural form; all of them are really class-nouns in their form.

The Andes, the Alps; the East Indies, the Netherlands, the Downs, the Grisons, the Scilly Isles; the Heavens, the Scriptures.

1186. The character of the article before names of capes, rivers, and ships seems more difficult to define. In many cases names of capes are evidently class-nouns, as *the Lizard*.

The Rhine, the Clyde, the Danube, the Tweed, the Spree, etc.

The Lusitania, the Invincible, the Dreadnought.

New names of rivers generally take the word *River* after the first element, whether it is a proper name or an adjective.

The Amazon River, the Illinois River, the Potomac River, the Orange River; the Red River.

1187. Proper names denoting countries may be used as class-nouns when various aspects or periods in the history of the country are contrasted. In this case they take the classifying article.

The new China that had arisen was a very different land from *the old China* of the Hans.

Wells, Short History¹⁾.

Dalriada, roughly *the modern Argyllshire*, was conquered by the Scots in 503.

Introd. to Philip's Historical Atlas.

1188. Before adjectives used in the function of plural or of abstract nouns the classifying article must be used. See the chapter on *Conversion*.

We have the same use of the article in appositions to proper names, such as *Charles the Bold*, *William the Silent*, etc.

1189. A special case of the conversion of adjectives into neuter nouns is the use of the superlatives of adjectives in the function of adverb adjuncts. They frequently occur with prepositions, especially *at* (*a*), but also without prepositions (*b*).

a. No doubt thefeat was easy to Mr. Utterson; for he was undemonstrative at the best.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

This was Leslie Stephen's fortune at the last. Pilot.

At the worst it's no worse than a rise in rates and taxes.

Meredith, Egoist.

b. I do not know which of the two is the best novel, though I know very well which I like the best.

A. C. Bradley in Essays II p. 26.

Of the two objects in the nest the unhatched egg irritated him the most.

Hudson, Hampshire Days ch. 1 p. 16.

We are sure that those who have known Somerset the longest, will thoroughly enjoy Mr. Hutton's pages.

Athen. 28/12, '12.

1) The two quotations of this section are borrowed from *Moderna Språk*, Febr. 1930.

It does not matter the least.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 4.

It was admitted by those who disliked him the most that he was both practical and just.

Trollope, Last Chronicle of Barset ch. 47.

Moreover, it is the recent political development of Norway which now interests historians the most. Pilot.

But for that very reason you are open to be tempted the most.

Meredith, R. Feverel.

1190. It is sometimes necessary to use *the* before predicative groups with *most*, to prevent *most* from being taken for an absolute superlative.

It was perhaps at this time that Mrs. Henry and I were the most uneasy in mind. Stevenson.

Of all his thoughts, as he stood there counting his cigars, this was the most poignant, the most bitter.

Galsworthy, Man of Property I ch. 2.

The large room at 202 High Street which Michael shared with Grainger and Lonsdale was perhaps in the annals of university lodgings the most famous.

Sinister Street p. 733.

The high mixed vowels are the most difficult.

Sweet, Sounds of English p. 36.

The omission of *the* would cause the superlative in the first quotation to express the meaning: *very uneasy*. But it is clear from the context that we have relative superlatives in the following sentences.

Although Dryden wrote no fewer than 27 plays he had no genius for drama. He only wrote to please the fashion. He is most famous for the political satires of his second period. Sefton Delmer, Eng. Lit.

Curiously enough, the communal revolution began most quietly in the land where it was ultimately responsible for the fiercest conflicts. Davis, Med. Europe p. 226.

Ordinal Numerals 1191. The definite article always stands before ordinals used to give a date.

April the fifteenth (viz. day), the fifteenth of April.

Note that the article, although commonly used in speech, is generally not written when the number follows.

15 (or 15th) April, 1910 or April 15 (or 15th), 1910 = [eipril ðə fif'tinþ], or [ðə fiftinþ əv eipril].

Unique Article 1192. Some class-nouns when denoting persons or things single in their kind are used with the article. They are equivalent to proper names: *The Lord, the Devil, the Bible, the Tower, the Mint, the sun, the moon*. Also *the Kaiser, the King, the Speaker, the river*, referring to one river familiar to the speaker.

This use of the classifying article might be denoted by the term *unique article*. When the unique article is contrasted with the indefinite article it is, or may be, strong-stressed.

The best sentence in the book is the last: "Life continues always, and the end of a world is not necessarily the end of the world."

Manchester Guardian Weekly 24/12, 1926.

1193. Closely related to this is the use of the article with strong stress (often shown in print by italics) in the sense of 'the pre-eminent', 'the typical'.

But she felt how different Roger's relation to her was.
To him she was *the one*, alone, peerless.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 162.

As it is waterproof and leather-lined throughout, it is
the boot for present wear. Advt.

The axe was pre-eminently *the implement* of antiquity.
Lubbock, Prehistoric Times.

She had forgotten the face of love. She was a landlady. She was *the* landlady: efficient, stylish, diplomatic, and tremendously experienced.

Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 7 § 3.

Professor Sales Wilson, Laetitia's father, was *the* Professor Sales Wilson. Only, if you had seen that eminent scholar when he got outside his library by accident and wanted to get back, you wouldn't have thought he was *the* anybody, . . .

de Morgan, Somehow Good, ch. 15 p. 143.

Adverbial the

1194. The adverbial *the* has the function of a demonstrative adverb. Adverbial *the* has a clearly demonstrative meaning when it denotes that an increase depends upon a cause mentioned in the first part of the sentence. It has been separated here from the adverbs in 1139 on account of its proclitic character, which causes it to resemble the article.

This appreciation of Agnes brought them into closer intimacy, and they talked the more easily of other things.

Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 10.

Here, indeed, this freak of fortune was felt to be all the more cruel on account of the impossibility of resenting it.

Butler, Way of All Flesh.

Masters left to serve their country, and the admiration felt for their patriotism was not the less sincere because it was unexpressed. Times Ed. S. 19/10, 16.

Her argument is not the less convincing that it conflicts at one point at least with the contention of some of the other contributors. Times Lit. 15/7, '15.

"But you know, Dr. Tempest, that you don't agree with your Bishop generally."

"Then it is the more fortunate that I shall be able to agree with him on this occasion."

Trollope, Last Chronicle of Barset ch. 54.

1195. Adverbial *the* is also used in the comparative of proportion; its demonstrative meaning is clear in the second *the* of the correlative group. The first *the* has a subordinating function.

The fewer men the greater the share of honour.
Hole, Memories.

The keener the observer, of course, and the more open-minded the thinker, the more vigorous his prejudices and pronounced his antipathies. Times Lit. 1/10, '14.

The more one has, the more one wants.

The Definite Article and the Possessive Pronouns

1196. In most cases a class-noun can be qualified by a definite article or by a possessive according to the idea that the speaker wishes to express. Instead of saying *She dashed the cup into its saucer* (Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 2 § 1) it would be possible to say *the saucer*.

There are a number of nouns, however, that must take the possessive pronoun under certain syntactic conditions, although the relation expressed by the possessives is not prominent in the speaker's mind. These nouns express ideas that can be thought of as belonging to a person's sphere of life, such as parts of the body, of a man's physical or mental equipment, his clothes, his 'belongings,' such as a schoolboy's books or pens, a rider's horse, or the direction of his riding, etc.

When the ideas expressed by these nouns are thought of by the speaker as inherently belonging to the person they require a reflexive possessive. This is very frequently the case when the person concerned is the grammatical subject of a sentence, or the subject of a verbal, if the verb expresses an action by the subject.

Minnie remained straining out of the window for a minute. Then she drew *her* head back into the room again.
Wells, Country of the Blind.

Kezia peered up at him, screwing up *her* eyes. Then she put *her* finger out and stroked his sleeve...

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 10.

Mr. Smith, if that was his name, didn't seem uneasy. He found *his* way to *his* restaurant and ordered a very good lunch and a bottle of Perrier-Jonet.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 7.

The old dog came from under the table and wagged *his* tail. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 84.

I found him smoking *his* pipe in front of his house.

Put down your pens. Schoolmaster to his pupils.

Put your books away. id.

1197. We also find the construction with reference to non-personal nouns. The result is that the thing is imagined as something animate.

Doors were off *their* hinges, windows screamed to *their* clangling shutters, the grime lay, like sand, about the sills and corners of the rooms.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 10 p. 113.

"Yes, everything outside the house is supposed to go," said Linda Burnell, and she waved a white hand at the tables and chairs standing on *their* heads on the front lawn.

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 2.

1198. The possessive is also found, though less frequently, in other cases than those of 1196 f.

Old Joe had always been behind his times.

Vachell, Quinneys' ch. 1.

"Good night, Mr. Business Man," said she, and she took hold of *his* head by the ears and gave him a quick kiss.

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 18.

1199. When the nouns of inherent possession are not thought of as intimately connected with the person referred to, the defining article is used. The first two passages quoted show that the construction is distinctly felt to serve the

function of expressing an absence of individual interest in the person referred to.

The dentist, therefore, with no great difference of meaning, but with great difference in effect, says 'Close the mouth' instead of 'Shut your mouth.'

Mildred L. Lambert, American Speech 3, 180 (1928).

"You're all very devoted to that child," she said . . .

"I don't know that Maggie's so desperately keen on the infant!" he said.

"She's not like you about him, that's sure!" Mrs. Hamps admitted. And she went on in a tone that was only superficially casual, "I wonder the mother doesn't come down to him!"

"Not 'his' mother — 'the' mother. Odd, the effect of that trifle! Mrs. Hamps was a great artist in phrasing.

Bennett, Clayhanger IV ch. 10 § 2.

It chanced that at that moment Griselda, Marchioness of Hartlepool, was gracing the paternal mansion. It need hardly be said that *the* father was not slow to invoke such a daughter's counsel, and such a sister's aid. I am not quite sure that *the* mother would have been equally quick to ask her daughter's advice, had she been left in the matter entirely to her own propensities.

Trollope, Last Chron. of Barset ch. II p. 14.

1200. The consequence of the non-affective effect of the article in these constructions is that it is used when a speaker wishes to relate an objective fact.

We are unable to utter more than a certain number of sounds in succession without renewing the stock of air in the lungs. Sweet, Pr. of Phonetics § 93.

Have they a father? — No, *the* father is dead, but *the* mother is still alive. — What did he die of? — Consumption, or some other disease of the lungs. — I thought he was killed in a railway accident. — No, that was *the* uncle — his brother.

Sweet, Element. no. 38.

There was not an inch of room for Lottie and Kezia

in the buggy. When Pat swung them on top of the luggage they wobbled; *the* grandmother's lap was full and Linda Burnell could not possibly have held a lump of a child on hers for any distance.

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 1.

He (the baby) was very like Peter — *the* grey eyes, the mouth a little stern, a little sulky, *the* snub nose, *the* arm a little short and thick, and that confident, happy smile. Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 8 § 2 p. 319.

Savonarola's appearance was remarkable, and, . . . neither holy nor saintly.

The features were heavy, gaunt and powerful; *the* nose large, arched and overhanging; *the* nostrils and lips thick as those of a sensualist; *the* skin coarse, sallow, and of a bilious look; *the* eyes small.

M. Bowen, The Carnival of Florence I ch. 4 p. 33.

The operator (viz. in a picture theatre or cinema) sustained burns about *the* hands and arms, but his injuries were not serious. Daily Mail.

1201. Sometimes the article is used because the accompanying noun refers directly to a noun with a possessive, although indirectly to a person thought of as intimately connected with it.

With *his* hands in *his* trouser-pockets, *the* thumb protruding¹⁾, *his* pipe in the left-hand corner of *his* mouth, *his* eyebrows drawn close together, *he* looked steadfastly towards M. —.

The monk's voice fell and softened; he laid one powerful hand on the young prince's rich sleeve, and *his* face, lately so fierce, took an expression almost of tenderness; *the* brows lifted, and *the* brown eyes showed soft and affectionate.

M. Bowen, Carnival of Florence I ch. 4 p. 39.

1) *The* thumb directly refers to the preceding *hand*, of which it forms a part.

She wore a black serge gown, with white collar and cuffs; *her* thick hair rippled low upon each side of *the* forehead... Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

1202. When the person is the object we generally find the article used, (*a*) but not invariably (*b*). See 837.

a. Stephen caught him by *the* arm and held him.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 84.

b. Brun, round and neat, and a citizen of the world from the crown of his head to the top of his shining toes, tapped Arkwright on his shoulder.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrex ch. 1.

1203. The article before these nouns may also be the ordinary anaphoric article.

Isabel had *the* carriage driven to the Osborns.

Allen, Mettle.

I turned redder than ever and wondered at whom to look so as to avoid vacancy, and what to do with my hands. Nervously I used *the* right hand to button up my coat, and then put it out of mischief in my pocket.

Ernest Raymond, Tell England ch. 10 p. 135.

I took it (the hand) quickly out and unbuttoned one coat-button: then, for lack of something to do with *the* hand, did the button up again. I decided to keep *the* miserable member fingering the button. To make matters worse Salome rested his eyes like a searchlight on *the* hand. ib. p. 136.

In Oxford Street a pretty waitress in a tea-shop drew Mr. Franklyn's eye; a drop of rain whacked his nose. He winked *the* eye; wiped *the* nose.

Hutchinson, Once Aboard the Lugger ch. 6 p. 35.

1204. Sometimes the noun of inherent possession forms part of a traditional syntactic group so that it cannot refer directly to the person concerned. Thus, *an affection of the heart* is as much of a unit semantically as *a heart-disease*; in such a group *heart* always keeps its classifying article. This

KRUISINGA, Handbook II. *Accidence and Syntax*. 2.

17

is the explanation of the use of the article in the following sentences.

She who had always submitted and bowed *the* head,
submitted and bowed *the* head then.

Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 14.

The question is sometimes asked why well-meaning, quiet, good people, perhaps not very strong in *the* head, in their desire to pursue religion in peace, seek the Communion of the Church of Rome. Pilot 12/9, 1903.

He sat at *his* desk with the letter in *his* hand, dazed for the moment, breathing hard, very red in *the* face.
Vachell, Quinneys'.

He finished the sentence with a shake of *the* head.

1205. In the following sentence the article is the result of the classifying use of the nouns *husband* and *wife*.

Here he (i.e. Death) would take the husband from *the* wife, here the child from *its* mother, here the statesman from *his* duty, and here the toiler from *his* trouble.

Wells, Country of the Blind.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1206. The character of the indefinite pronouns as a distinct group has been dealt with in 963. It has been shown that a definition is practically impossible, because any definition would have to be so vague as to be valueless. But some classification might be attempted so as to bring out the characteristics that a number of these pronouns have in common and distinguish them from other groups included among the indefinite pronouns. As the indefinite pronouns show no variations or peculiarities of form, a classification would have to be based on their grammatical functions or their meanings.

1207. With regard to their functions the indefinite pronouns may be classified as *adjectives* and as *nouns*; either of these may lead to an adverbial use.

In the first group we may include *all*, *any*, *both*, *certain*, *each*, *either*, *every*, *no*, *one*, *several*, *same*, *some*, *sundry*. The pronoun *none*, if considered a simple word and not a compound of *one*, is primarily a noun, although it can also be used attributively, at least in literary English. The other pronouns, although primarily adjectives, can be used as nouns¹⁾ with certain restrictions, which are in some respects different from those governing the conversion of the non-pronominal adjectives; the chief difference being that the pronouns take no article; see *Conversion* in volume 3. We can conclude, therefore, that nearly all the indefinite pronouns are primarily adjectives²⁾.

1208. All the indefinite pronouns express number; the exceptions are *one* as far as it is used as a prop-word, and the noun *thing*, which is included among the indefinites on account of its similarity in use to the prop-word *one*. The difference between the indefinite pronouns and the words generally classed as numerals is that the pronouns express number more or less indefinitely; this does not really apply to *one* and *both*, of course, nor to *either*. The pronouns express number collectively, as *all*, *several*, *some*, *sundry*; or distributively, as *each*, *every*, *either*. *Same* is not to be classed with the numerals; nor are all the uses of the other indefinites invariably numerical, such as those of *all* and *no* with other than class-nouns.

1) An exception is formed by *every*, which is never used other than adjectivally.

2) The compound indefinites in *-body*, *-one*, and *-thing* are not included in this statement.

None of the classifications seems really convincing enough to provide a basis for the order of treatment, which will consequently be alphabetical.

All

1209. When used attributively before an abstract or material noun, *all* expresses quantity; before a plural class-noun it expresses number. The noun may be accompanied by defining words, such as articles or possessive pronouns; this distinguishes *all* from most of the other indefinite pronouns; see *both* (1222) and *no* (1242).

All the gold in the world would not be enough.

Moreover, why should Stella have all the excitement of going abroad and living abroad while her brother plodded to school in dull, ordinary London?

Sinister Street p. 159.

That night Peter had one of his old dreams. In all the seven years that he had been in London the visions that had so often made his nights at Scaw House terrible had never come to him. Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 4 p. 182.

Theognis bids his friend be as much as possible all things to all men. Symonds, Greek Poets. N E D.

They had watched all his motions and lectured him on all his youthful follies.

1210. When *all* is used to qualify the stem of a class-noun, the latter is taken in a collective sense approaching that of an abstract noun.

We have lost all trace of him.

The window was open, and all the sound and smells of the farm came into the room¹⁾.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 3 p. 28.

1211. The use is adjectival in examples like the following, where *all* qualifies the pronoun (*a*). When *all* is followed

1) It may be supposed that *sound* is a mistake for *sounds*, but if so the mistake is hardly without significance.

by an adjunct with *of*, the adjunct is really the headword as far as meaning goes; but formally, *all* is rather to be looked on as a noun; see 1214 and 1465.

a. They are all very contented with their presents.

b. All of us have said so at times. NED.

It is a curious fact that all of Henry's wives can trace their descent from this king (viz. Edward I).

Quoted Poutsma p. 1022.

1212. The use of *all* before proper names and the stems of class-nouns, to express *the whole*, is literary. Colloquial English would use *whole* (*the whole of* Etruria, the *whole* world, year, observatory). See 1466.

All Etruria and Latium were overrun. Goodspeed.

In the Museum was the library, containing 532,000 manuscripts collected from all the world¹⁾.

Goodspeed.

An impatience of everything familiar fretted me through all the changing year. Gissing, Ryecroft (Summer II).

Then the lantern went out and all the observatory was black. Wells, Country p. 63.

But the whole of this theory seems false to me.

Wells, Country p. 100.

1213. In negative expressions *all* is sometimes equivalent to *any whatever*.

Beyond all question we have never had sufficient unity of control. Times W. 16/11, '17.

To deny all connexion, etc.

At all costs, in all weathers.

1214. The noun-pronoun *all* may refer to persons (*a*). The use of *all* as a class-noun is rather literary than spoken English (*b*). The plural *alls* is only occasional (*c*).

1) In colloquial English *all the world* would refer to people, i.e. *world* would be taken in its collective sense.

a. It was observed by all that the duke was especially attentive to young Mr. Frank Gresham.

Trollope, Framley Pars. ch. 8.

They worship money, they hoard money. One and all despise rich people. Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 3 p. 27.

b. And this girl — his ewe-lamb — his all, was she fair? Bulwer, Caxtons III ch. 3.

c. An inn in Marlborough has the sign ‘The Five Alls.’ They are — a king, with the motto, ‘I govern all’; a bishop, with ‘I pray for all’; a lawyer, ‘I plead for all’; a soldier, ‘I fight for all’; a labourer, ‘I pay for all.’

1215. *All* can also be used as a neuter noun. It is generally qualified by an attributive adjunct or clause (*a*), but the special reference may be indicated by the situation (*b*). The use of *all* as a neuter noun-pronoun without a special reference is literary (*c*).

a. I know all about it.

All I know is that he refused to come.

“He came on business” — that was all that anybody knew. Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 1.

By ten o’clock, when the shops were closed, the by-street was very solitary, and, in spite of the low growl of London from all round, very silent.

Stevenson, Jekyll p. 22.

The coal crisis still overshadows all else.

Daily News, 1912.

She informed him of all which she had learned from her brother. Mark Lemon, Wait for the End, T. p. 165.

b. He had seen all, while selling a kodak to a young lady. Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 1 § 3.

You won’t listen to me now. Very well. But don’t come to me for help when you go wrong, that’s all.

c. After the Revolution of 1689, however, all was changed. Seston Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 94.

1216. When *all* refers to a noun (or pronoun) mentioned in the sentence, it may seem to be an adjunct to the following word.

In her right hand, all seamed with black lines, she held a cup of coffee.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 2 § 3 p. 465.

Here *all* really serves to qualify *seamed*, so that it comes to mean *completely*. This use is probably the origin of the purely adverbial use, as in the following cases¹⁾.

He's really all right. Sinister Street p. 553.

Things are all wrong²⁾.

If it is all the same to you I'd rather not come.

All too slowly for Sheila the supper dragged its course. Stephen Mc. Kenna, Sheila Intervenes ch. 14.

All about him insects were stirring.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 3 § 2 p. 264.

Lottie and Kezia stood on the patch of lawn just inside the gate all ready for the fray . . .

K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 1.

He had never felt so tenderly towards his grandfather before; it was, perhaps, because he had himself grown up all in a day . . . the time had come for him to deal with the situation all about him.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 8 § 2 p. 87.

You're awfully wise to eat on deck all you can, Betty. Chapin, New Morality, Brit. p. 577.

Compare the use of *all* before the comparative with *the*: *all the better*, etc.

All right is so much of a unit that we find it qualified by an adverb of degree.

Perfectly all right, thanks.

Galsworthy, Swan Song I ch. 2 p. 21.

It is sometimes written *alright*, though not in print. Both *all right* and *all ready* differ from *already* in retaining more clearly the meaning of the second element of the group.

1) The adverbial or semi-adverbial function of *all* is sometimes responsible for a deviation in the word-order; see *Word-order (Attributive Pronouns)*.

2) Here, too, *all* can be interpreted as an adjunct to the noun (*things*).

1217. Sometimes *all* with a preposition forms a group-preposition: such are *for all*, *with all* both meaning 'in spite of.' On *for all* as a conjunction, see *Conjunctions*.

Mr. Howe, for all his documentary method, is always on Hazlitt's side, when he can be.

Times Lit. 14/9, '22.

She was reserved, aloof, a severe critic for all her grace and sympathy, a little formidable, perhaps, with her love of plain speaking and her fiery temper and her fearlessness in saying what she thought. But with all her gifts she was little known.

Times Lit. 24/9, 1925, p. 605/4.

When *all but* is used adverbially, meaning *almost*, it is a unit in spite of the spelling (*a*); but the pronoun *all* does not necessarily form a close group with a following *but* (*b*).

a. The senseless routine of mechanic exercise was in itself all but unendurable to me.

Gissing, Ryecroft (Spring XIX).

Even as an example these expeditions were all but fruitless.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 211.

All but all men have to look back upon beginnings of life deformed and discoloured by necessity, accident, wantonness¹⁾.

Gissing, ib. XI.

b. Highest prices given for all but the very commonest varieties.

Advt.

The tyranny of party-spirit has bereft it (viz. Parliament) of nearly every opportunity of independent decision, and has laid the heavy shackles of obedience to the party whips, on both sides, on all but the most resolute of private members.

Everyman 29/11, '12.

A similar group is *altogether*.

1) This example shows clearly that [əlbət] is not thought of as consisting of *all* and *but*.

Any

1218. The adjective *any* suggests *no matter who or which or what*. In declarative sentences, if affirmative, it is always strongly stressed; in this function it may be compared with *each* and *every* (1239 ff.). In other sentences it may be either stressed or not; unstressed *any* in interrogative and conditional sentences shows close affinity to *some* (see 1336).

They were awaiting Mr. Gibson's return, which might be expected at any minute. Gaskell, Wives III p. 35.

They agree that our men bear themselves with a calm and dauntless courage unsurpassed in the annals of any army. Times W. 29/3, '18.

The very rough weather hinders any kind of operation on a considerable scale. ib. 2/2, '17.

When he comes here, he sits as glum as a monkey. If I ask him what wine he'll have, he says: "Thanks, any wine." Galsworthy, Man of Property II ch. 2.

Now what we miss in Dr. Ward's book is any attempt towards this. Times Lit. 21/12, '17.

No one, therefore, can really study any particular period of history unless he knows a great deal about what preceded it and what came after it.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. XXII.

"We will all help you," said the children, starting off, much pleased to be any use.

Rutland, The Oak Chest p. 36.

If any delusion of that kind was prevalent in Germany, the voting of Monday in Canada must have ended it. Times W. 21/12, '17.

1219. *Any* is also used emphatically to express quantity.

Voiced stops cannot be maintained for any length of time. Sweet.

If any doubt remained, after the Prime Minister had spoken, of the real gravity of the moment, Mr. Asquith must have removed it. Times W. 12/4, '18.

If we are to face the future with any confidence after this exhausting war, we must face it as an educated people.
Times Ed. S. 5/10, '15.

1220. *Any* can be used substantively to denote persons; in this case it has a plural meaning (*a*). It can also refer to a noun or pronoun that follows as part of an *of*-adjunct. Abstract and material nouns have the form of the stem (*b*); class-nouns are in the plural, whether denoting persons or things, and *any* itself is also plural, seldom singular, in meaning in this case (*c*). See 1339 ff. on *anyone*.

a. "I cannot say who did it. I did not." — "You! Oh, Phineas! The world must be mad when any can believe it." Trollope, *Phineas Redux*.

Do any forget who have ever known those blissful hours in the groves and in the meadows by the stream?

Hole, *Memories* p. 217.

In the glow of satisfaction she could not bear to punish any by keeping them in ignorance of the joyful news.

Pett Ridge, *Garland* ch. 11.

"Mark Rutherford's" lamented death brings home to us how rarely any of our novelists treat with distinction or spiritual sincerity the life of religious emotion.

Nation, 12/7, '13.

b. It had become necessary to give Tabby — now nearly eighty years of age — the assistance of a girl. Tabby relinquished any of her work with great reluctance.

Gaskell, *Life of C. Brontë* ch. 15.

c. Bookbuyers can examine any of Mr. T. Fisher Unwin's books at their local bookseller's.

"You'd better go and look up some of your Bohemian friends," he advised severely. "They are probably all hanging about Chelsea still. It's not likely that any of them is farther on with his art than he was two years ago." Sinister Street p. 756.

1221. In conclusion, *any* is used as an adverb of degree, especially to modify comparatives and adjectives or adverbs preceded by *too*. See below on *none*.

So when he (viz. a dog) came to the house, he scratched at the door, and said: "bow wow!" for he could not speak any plainer. Sweet, Spoken English p. 48.

On some occasions troops of the Prussian Guard have not behaved any too well in the fighting on the Somme.
Times W.

Both

1222. *Both* means 'the one as well as the other'. It can qualify a noun with other pronouns, as well as without (*a*); in this respect it resembles *all*; see 1209. It can follow a noun or a personal pronoun: *they both*; or take an *of*-adjunct: *both of them* (*b*). It can also be separated from the noun or pronoun by a weak-stressed word (*c*). It may be used without a noun (or pronoun) to which it refers. When used absolutely, *both* is sometimes qualified by an adjunct with *of* (*d*). See 1211 *b* and 1465.

a. In Russia it is common to give both dates.

I have attained my ideal: I am a roadmender, some say stone-breaker. Both titles are correct, but the one is more pregnant than the other.

Michael Fairless, Roadmender I.

Both my friends saw it. — My friends both saw it.

b. They both speak of death.

The papers found in the strongbox had converted them both to the true faith.

They were both of them rather like race-horses.

Bennett, Old W. T. I ch. 1.

c. We are both men of the world.

The brothers might both have come.

They seem both very obstinate.

The men have both gone.

d. Both were Tories: both were men of hot temper and strong prejudices.

Both of us often talk to the boys.

I undoubtedly lay claim to both of these characteristics.

1223. *Both* does not often qualify a noun with the definite article. The construction is literary rather than colloquial (*a*), unless the article is anaphoric. The use of the article qualifying the following group with *both* is exceptional (*b*).

a. To this both the ladies readily agreed¹⁾.

R. A. Freeman, *The Red Thumbmark*.

They ... made enough room for both the coaches to pass. C. S. Fearnside.

b. It'll only be worse for the both of you if you let things drag on. Maud Diver, *Unconquered* p. 263.

1224. *Both* is used adverbially with *and* for its correlative; see *Sentence-Structure (Double Sentences)*.

Upon the small details of language both the psychology and history of speech depend.

Morris, *Principles and Methods of Latin Syntax*.

Certain

1225. *Certain* approaches the nature of a pronoun when it is used to indicate persons or things that the speaker does not choose to identify or specify any further.

Everything that is natural is, within certain limits, right.

If a certain quantity of beef be given for a certain quantity of corn ...

With proper names it implies that the person so indicated is presumed to be unknown except by name = 'a certain person called', or 'calling himself'; hence often conveying a slight shade of disdain or disrespect.

Mrs. Raggett brought with her a certain Miss Lucy.

1) This is one out of several examples from this author quoted by C. Bergener in an article in *Moderna Språk* for Sept. 1929. The quotations are not full enough, unfortunately, to make the interpretation of the article quite certain.

1226. *Certain* is also used as a plural noun, especially in literary English.

No wonder that the reviewers have been non-plussed; that certain of them have given utterance to judgements inept enough. Edinb. Rev. April 1908.

In collecting the following poems I have to thank the editors and proprietors of the periodicals in which certain of them have appeared for permission to reclaim them.

Thomas Hardy, Poems, Preface.

Each

1227. *Each* refers to the members of a group individually; it has a strong distributive force¹⁾. Hence it is frequent in referring to the members of a numerically definite group. Compare 1239.

Each can be used as a noun (*a*), or as an adjective (*b*).

a. There was no hesitancy, I believe, on the part of the officers as to the side each should take.

Capt. Mahan, quoted Athen. 8/2, 1908.

Each of these (two) women instantly perceived that since they had parted a change had taken place in the other; neither was aware that the other noticed the change in herself. Allen, Mettle.

A poem, a novel, a lecture on the art of writing, each imposes its different task. Times Lit. 30/3, '16.

Two cities share the Empire of Imagination, Babylon and Rome; each has no rival but the other.

Times Lit. 11/3, '15.

Each of the four lectures has a definite subject, though each forms an essential part of a coherent argument.

Athenaeum 21/9, '12.

Mrs. Woodward questioned her daughters but little,

1) This distributive force is often indicated by some such word as *separate*, *of its own*, etc.

but she understood well the nature of each, and could nearly read their thoughts.

Trollope, Three Clerks ch. 14 p. 162.

b. Each student had a separate room, and all had their meals together in a common hall.

Rutherford, Autobiog. p. 12.

These are questions of taste that must be decided by the individual judgment of each reader.

Times Lit. 24/5, '18.

No man demands what he desires; each man demands what he fancies he can get.

Chesterton, What's Wrong, p. 18.

The Old English historian Bede tells us that different tribes came over at intervals, one after another, and that each tribe established a different dominion of its own ... Each of the small states so formed maintained a sturdy spirit of independence against the others.

Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 3.

Either, Neither

1228. *Either* and *neither* usually refer to two¹⁾. *Either* means *one or the other*. *Neither* means 'not the one nor the other'. They may be used as adjectives (*a*) or as nouns (*b*).

a. The question whether it is so or not might be interesting, but there is next to no evidence either way.

Stubbs, Early Engl. Hist. p. 4.

In some literary journal a hack was defined lately as a man who writes politics on either or any side indifferently.

There, too, it is impossible to predict the issue. Either candidate may win. Times W. 11/5, '17.

b. Coincidences have been pointed out between (Shakespeare's) Richard II and Daniel's *Civil Wars* 2nd edition,

1) With reference to more than two the pronoun *any* is used for *either*; for *neither* the adjective pronoun *no*, and the noun-pronoun *none* are used.

1595: if either borrowed from the other, the borrower was probably Daniel.

Jowett was a great Hellenist in one sense and Bywater was a great Hellenist in quite another. Neither cared very much for the aims and ideals of the other, but each was a master in his own sphere.

Times Lit. 13/4, '17.

1229. *Either* and *neither* are occasionally used with reference to more than two, probably owing to want of clear thinking.

She has style, talent, and money, and in the strict sense of these words Phillis has neither.

Hocking, *Awakening of Anthony Weir* ch. 11.

1230. *Either* is also used in the meaning of 'one as well as the other'. It thus approaches the meaning of *both*, from which it differs by taking the members of the group singly. *Either* is very common in this meaning in the phrase *on either side*, and in some other expressions, but apart from these its use in this meaning is rather literary.

He looked over me and at me and on either side of me, without the slightest sign of seeing me.

Wells, *Country* p. 88.

The ammunition columns on either flank provide us with plenty of amusement. Punch 14/11, '17.

But while combining in some degree the excellence of either (viz. of Whitefield and Charles Wesley), he (viz. John Wesley) possessed qualities in which both were utterly deficient. Green, *Short Hist.* p. 738.

"Here, come along," Richard beckoned to him savagely. "I'll be back in five minutes, uncle," he nodded coolly to either. Meredith, R. *Feverel*.

If any rational reader puts to himself the question, "Is it likely that people would ever behave like this?"

or the question, "Is it desirable that people should behave like this?" he will probably answer "No" to either.

J. C. Squire, *Observer* 1/5, 21.

1231. The combination of *either* with a possessive pronoun is rare; see 848.

1232. *Either* is also used as an adverb, to emphasize a negative¹⁾.

My first quarter at Lowood seemed an age, and not the golden age either. C. Brontë, *J. Eyre* ch. 7.

There was once a time, and not so long ago either, when gentle people were so gentle, that they could not (with the countenance of their families) enter upon any other profession than the Army, the Navy, or the Church.

Cannan, *Corner* ch. 1.

"Humph!" said my lord, staring at him.

"That's your opinion, is it?" And he was not displeased either. Burnett, *Fauntleroy* ch. 6.

In her French way, and not so very French either, I think she's as pretty — though not so distinguished, not so alluring — as Irene.

Galsworthy, *In Chancery* Part III ch. 10.

1233. *Either* and *neither* are very commonly used as coordinating conjunctions. See also the sections on *so*: 1140ff.

If, however, they won't make the child either a soldier, a sailor, a clergyman, or a barrister, what on earth do they intend it to grow up into? Sketch, 8/12, 1909.

Neither he nor his friend said anything more on the way back. Dickens, *Chuzzlewit*.

1234. The following quotations show the difference between *either* and *both*.

Our critics, internal and external (being mostly anonymous they may be either, and are probably both) are ill-informed.

1) *Neither* in this function is colloquial rather than literary.

But if the great Guillemand had stopped to live up to this sporting reputation, he would assuredly have laid one or other of us by the heels, and either would have been tantamount to both.

Whatever was ridiculous or odious in either increased the scorn and aversion which the multitude felt for both.
Macaulay, History.

1235. When *either* means *one and the other* it differs very little from *each*.

The woods on each side of the avenue leading from Abinger Common to the hill are marked out for felling also.
Times W. 29/3, '18.

Then we came to a wide gateway ... There were massive pillars on each side of the gate; and on the top of each pillar there was a stone dragon — the crest of the family the estate belonged to.

Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 56.

When the individualizing meaning must be expressed, *each* only can be used; see the second and fourth quotations of 1227.

Every

1236. *Every* refers to the members of a group one by one. It has a collective rather than a distributive force, but neither of these meanings is strongly present. The group referred to is often quite indefinite with regard to number, but it is always more than two. It is always used attributively before a noun (not a pronoun).

Oxford is a favourite haunt of birds at every season of the year, and most of all in summer.

I am feeling better in every way.

Every few months he saw something new to wonder at and admire.
Burnett, Fauntleroy ch. 3.

1237. *Every* is occasionally used in combination with another, usually a possessive, pronoun; see 848.

Religion, then, in the Middle Ages played a greater part in man's life than it does now. It was entwined with his every action public and private.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 178.

So you may sometimes see a little, grave boy walking through a field, unwatched as he believes, suddenly fling his feet and his head every which way.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 10 p. 113 (ib. ch. 22 p. 263).

1238. *Every* is not infrequently used when no number is thought of. This is sometimes disapproved of, as is shown by the last of the following quotations.

There is every reason to believe that the other Powers will take the same view. Times W. 19/1, '17.

There is no excuse for the use of *every* in expressions like "every assistance", "every success", "every confidence", when it is so easy to say "all possible assistance", "complete success", "full confidence". Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

The cause of the disapproval of the examples in the above sentence is that *assistance*, *success*, *confidence*, unlike *reason* in the first quotation, cannot be used with words suggesting number.

1239. *All* when qualifying a singular noun *All*, *Each*, means 'whole'. Before a plural class-noun it *Every* takes the members of a group collectively. Both *each* and *every* take the members of the group separately.

Every differs from *each* in that it does not so strictly individualize the members of a group. The distributive force of *every* is sometimes almost, if not quite, gone, so that *everything*, *every one* are interchangeable with *all*, but as a rule the difference in meaning between *every* and *all* is clear enough.

"I said you could see Pauline every day," she told Guy. "But I did not say all day."

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 352.

I am by myself here all day and every day.

Bennett, Anna of the Five Towns ch. 12.

All works on this constantly progressive branch of archaeology are necessarily ephemeral. Each adds to and corrects what preceded it; each wants to be corrected and partly superseded by its successors.

Times Lit. 24/2, '16.

All the houses in that block had been built by people of English descent near the close of the eighteenth or at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Each was set apart from each by lawns, yards and gardens, and further screened by shrubs and vines in accordance with old English custom. Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

The guiding idea of the four Emperors who come before us is the recovery of Constantinople, and throughout all their military enterprises and diplomatic negotiations they never lost sight of the ultimate goal. They were all men of ability, each in his own way.

Athenaeum 25/1, '13.

As there are anomalies in every history, so there is a history for every anomaly. Our constitution is full of such, so are our time-honoured customs, our laws and liturgy, our territorial divisions, our language written and spoken. Each of these is a growth of a thousand years, and every irregularity in each has a history.

Stubbs, Early Engl. Hist. p. 1.

Every vowel can have its pitch raised or lowered by varying the length of the vocal chords. But each vowel has besides an inherent pitch of its own. Sweet.

The dignity of our profession can in the end only be asserted by the independent study by each teacher of child personality. Every teacher can contribute original research towards the building-up of educational theory, for every child is unique. Teacher's World 11/3, '14.

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Prospectus Nonesuch Press 1928.

1240. Occasionally *each* and *every* are used without any difference of meaning, perhaps to avoid the repetition of the pronoun. Sometimes they are combined for the sake of emphasis.

In Germany there is one periodical for every 7500 inhabitants, while in the United Kingdom there is one to each 9000.

Giving figures to prove each and every statement.
Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 13.

1241. There is also reason to compare *all*, *any*, *every* (before a plural) and *any*. The difference between these is that *all* is more collective. In some cases *any* and *every* do not differ much; they are sometimes combined. When qualifying a singular noun *all* and *every* differ quite clearly.

But you must be on your guard against the scandal-mongers and collectors of anecdotes, and worst of any, the critic of our Galleries of Art.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 1.
Even Father André, an educated man who should

have known better, was willing to believe any accusation, however preposterous, against the abominable invaders.

Buchanan, *That Winter Night* ch. 3.

We shall be prudent to assume that, as more experience is gained, attacks may be attempted on any night when the atmospheric conditions are favourable.

Times W. 5/10, '17.

Tamlin pursued pleasure upon any and every path.
Vachell, *Quinneys'*.

No

No 1242. *No* is used as an adjective with the approximate meaning 'not any' (*a*).

When qualifying a noun with an attributive adjunct it often makes the adjective negative rather than the noun, and implies that an adjunct of an opposite meaning would be more appropriate (*b*); in a similar way it is used before a predicative noun to denote the opposite of what the noun indicates or a bad specimen of the class (*c*).

a. For a hundred years after Chaucer's death there was no great writer in England.

Delmer, Eng. Lit. p. 29.

Indeed, to buy a cheap thing is an extravagance, for it is worn out in no time, and the washerwoman hastens its end.

Times W. 1/2, '18.

No thoroughfare.

There is no accounting for tastes.

In the West kings reign but do not rule. Prince William must be prepared to rule, for the Albanians will have no *roy fainéant*.

Times W. 6/3, '14.

The Prince will certainly be fettered by no arbitrary or unreasonable restrictions, and he will have the opportunity of leading a free and natural life as an undergraduate.

Times W.

b. But he was no great analyser of his own motives, and was mistaken, as I have said.

Gaskell, *North and South* ch. 29.

The task of welding these various bodies into a homogeneous whole was no easy one.

Times Ed. S. April 1915.

No little interest attaches to the report of the model cottages which we learn from a contemporary are being built to the order of Mr. Rowntree, of York.

Everyman 5/9, '13.

Of one capital fact regarding her subject Mrs. Meakin will convince any reader: that Hannah More was no narrow-minded bigot. Athenaeum 23/12, '11.

It at once became evident that they had come to the conference in no spirit of compromise.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 374.

He was certainly a writer of great polish but of no profundity¹⁾. Times Lit. 12/1, 22.

c. He was no fool. Hichens, Ambition ch. 18 p. 207.

He was very pleasant, talked away for about two hours. However, my wife took the greatest dislike to him, and even went so far as to say he was no gentleman. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 78.

He (King Louis X of France) was no general; his attack on Egypt was foredoomed to failure.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 221.

1243. The function of *no* mentioned under *a* in the preceding section is to negative a noun; in *b* it negatives an adjective. The case under *c* is really identical with *b*, on account of the adjectival character of the predicative noun. Thus *he is no soldier* means *he is not soldierlike*.

This use of *no* before a noun without an adjective is also found in other functions than as a predicate.

Mr. Critchlow put the tray on a white-clad chest of drawers near the door, and then he shut the door with no ceremony. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 2 § 1 p. 37.

1) It naturally makes no real difference that *no* precedes the noun in the adjunct instead of what is the headword.

She told him... that he was rough and had no manners. Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 1 § 2 p. 235

No and not 1244. *No* in the meaning *not any*, *not a* is possible only when it cannot be understood in the meaning described under *b* and *c*. This explains the use of *not* in the following quotations.

Harm has been done by those who have spoken of his (viz. Tennyson's) 'philosophy,' whether to exalt or belittle it. He was not a philosopher, any more than Wordsworth was, or Browning or Meredith.

Bradley, *Reaction* p. 7.

Augustine was not a Gregory in wide statesmanship, a Columba in missionary stedfastness.

Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 18.

He was not an ill-tempered man.

Jane Austen, *Emma* p. 89.

Malthus, Ricardo and Mill were not historians, but they and less orthodox economists have compelled historians to modify and expand their conception of history.

Times Lit. 25/9, '19.

1245. Sometimes *not a* is used because the article has its numerical meaning. See 1309.

Not a murmur was heard from the soldiers as they stood at their death parade.

Van Neck, *Easy Engl. Prose*.

Not a dog would bark at him throughout the whole neighbourhood. W. Irving, *Sketch-Book* p. 34.

(Compare: The echoes repeated his whistle and shout, but no dog was to be seen. ib. p. 42).

The effect of *not* with the indefinite article is to make the noun emphatic; *not a murmur* thus expresses 'not a murmur even', *not a little* is equivalent to 'a great deal', or 'very much', as in *not a little ashamed of himself*.

1246. In non-predicative use there is generally not much difference between *no* and *not*.

One of the most important subjects is the desire for education now displayed by a not inconsiderable number of Turkish women. *Athen.* 7/10, '11.

Here *a not inconsiderable number* means *a rather considerable number*. *No inconsiderable number* would only be a little stronger and convey: a very considerable number.

1247. In all the above cases *no* and *not* have been compared as word-modifiers. *Not* is also a sentence-modifier, as in the following quotation.

In spite of the rather misleading advertisement the book has not a separate introduction.

Athen. 22/2, 1908.

1248. Before comparatives in *-er*, *no* is used as a word-modifier, *not* as a sentence-modifier.

The patient is no better to-day.

There was no longer any room for doubt.

To read Dostoevsky, in fact, is to be constantly reminded of his enigmatic tormented personality. This subjective element, although it is not stranger, is probably more apparent in him than in any other Russian imaginative writer. *Times Lit.* 20/12, 28 p. 997/2.

In the following quotation *no* negatives the sentence, but the context makes the meaning quite clear.

When Bismarck learnt Russian for diplomatic purposes, he declared that it was no harder than Greek and much more useful. *Times Lit.* 31/8, '16.

1249. As a consequence of this function of *no* before a comparative we regularly find it when the opposite is intended to be expressed. Thus *no more than* generally means *as little (few) as*; *no less than* is usually equivalent

to as much (*many*) as (*a*). Sometimes however, superiority or inferiority is only denied in order to express equality (*b*).

a. The Place Blanche and the Boulevard de Clichy were no more lively than the lesser streets and squares.

Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 6 § 4.

He's no more a lord than I am.

(This is what) Rhodes had in his eye when he proposed this plan of securing that the scholar¹⁾ should be no less manly than replete with book-learning.

Athen. 1/3, '13.

I saw him no later than last Tuesday.

Yet it was no less delightful than strange to her to find a delicate sympathy; an intuitive comprehension of her feelings. Peard, Madame p. 128.

b. The chances are that the empties (i. e. empty houses) in Lewisham are no more than they are in any other borough. Standard 22/5, 1906.

1250. Before comparatives with *more* we find *not* as a word-modifier because *no* might suggest the meaning just explained.

It is not more readable to-day than the same author's *Lady Juliana Mandeville*, or her translations from the French, — that is to say it is not readable at all.

A. Dobson.

The changes in the religious life of England brought about by the Norman Conquest were not less important than those subsequently due to the Reformation.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 93.

He had been making a fool of himself in another quarter of Paris, and he had descended to the Pension Frensham as a place where he could be absolutely sure of spending not more than twelve francs a day.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 1 § 1.

1) i. e. the holder of a Rhodes scholarship.

1251. Both *no* and *not* are often possible because it may be indifferent whether we use a word-modifier or a sentence-modifier.

He drinks no beer. He does not drink beer.

1252. *No* is also used as a sentence-word to deny or contradict a preceding affirmative question or statement¹⁾.

Have you seen him? — No.

He was born in 1870. — No, in 1872.

1253. *No* is further used to confirm a preceding negative question or statement. Note that *hardly*, *only*, etc. also make a sentence negative.

Haven't you seen him? — No.

He was not in time. — No, but it did not matter.

She had only sons, I think? — No; only Mr. Osborne and Mr. Roger Hamley. She had a daughter once — 'Fanny.' Sometimes, in her illness, she used to call me 'Fanny'. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 19 p. 325.

It's only an eighteen minutes' run. — No, that's all.

Did you get any sport in Brittany? — Yes, we caught a good many trout the last two weeks. — Only trout? — No, we didn't try for salmon; the salmon-fishing isn't worth much there. Sweet, *Element.* no. 73 p. 93.

1254. *No* is used as a sentence-word with a rising intonation, to express interest in a preceding negative statement.

We have never been to the races. — No? All the more reason I should try and make the day pleasant for you.

1255. Both *no* and *not* are used in alternative questions with *if* or *whether*.

You will soon find whether I tell you the truth or no.
Hawthorne, *Wonder-book* p. 17.

1) In this section and in the three that follow *no* cannot be called a pronoun. It seems advisable, however, not to make a fetish of system in grammar. See also vol. 3 on the *Meaning of Sentences*.

She would glance at him then, with a special loving doubtfulness, at a loss as to whether or no he had designed to compliment her.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 25 p. 308.

She could hardly tell if she should like it or not.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 136.

It is their duty to find out by following the children to their homes, whether or not the advice of the doctor has been taken. Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

The question that agitated him now was whether or not to take Nedda with him. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 20.

One

1256. The many uses of *one* can best be arranged systematically and intelligibly if, starting from its meaning as a genuine numeral, we show the gradual disappearance of the numerical meaning, until the word ceases to have any meaning at all.

We distinguish:

- (1) attributive *one*;
- (2) *one* denoting persons;
- (3) anaphoric *one*.

Attributive One

1257. Like other definite numerals, *one* can be used attributively (*one circumstance*); and independently, when referring to a noun elsewhere (*He has got two pounds, I have only one*). The two uses may be considered to be really one.

The numeral *one* can be used to refer back to a noun.

He poured tea into two collapsible cups and passed one to Rodney...

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 4 p. 59.

On the soft deep dust the treading feet of the travellers (viz. two men) moved quietly. One walked with a light unevenness, a slight limp. ib. ch. 4 p. 61.

1258. Attributive *one* is most distinctly a numeral when it denotes one specimen as one of a class; this may be termed the *classifying* use.

Every member has one vote.

Childless families and families with one child.

The single specimen may also be thought of as an individual one; this is the *individualizing* use, which makes *one* equivalent to 'a certain'. Compare 1308 ff.

On one occasion, the noble family of the Fabii offered to proceed against them and conduct the war.

Goodspeed, History.

At Paris, just after dark one gusty evening in the autumn of 18—, I was enjoying the twofold luxury of meditation and a meerschaum, in company with my friend, C. Auguste Dupin.

Poe in Selected Short Stories II p. 78.

He would perhaps look in on the caricatures at the English Gallery, and visit one duchess in Mayfair, concerning the George Richard Memorial.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 1.

1259. Attributive *one* means 'one, single, only' when it is used with a pronoun, including the article, like an ordinary adjective (*a*). Sometimes it means 'individual' (*b*).

a. The one real danger is that the Government will miss their opportunity for want of a definite plan.

Times W. 11/5, '17.

(This idea) is one which occurs in many primitive societies and is peculiar to no one branch of the human race.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 97.

Next to the Duke of Northumberland's Northumbrian dominions, the Duke of Cleveland's Durham estate is probably the largest owned by any one great proprietor in any single county.

Escott, England I. 58.

In its origin it was popular in the widest sense — not restricted to any one rank or class.

Ker, Eng. Lit. p. 81.

In its¹⁾ venerable one coat lay a certain vein of satire on human vanity in clothes.

Hardy, Native I ch. 1 p. 7.

The July sun shone over Egdon and fired its crimson heather to scarlet. It was the one season of the year and the one weather of the season, in which the heath was gorgeous. ib. IV ch. 1 p. 295.

b. To anyone familiar with the text-books issued from any one publishing house it is very interesting to observe the way in which certain illustrations are used and re-used. Times Ed. S. 22/5, '19.

1260. *One* is used independently in a closely related meaning in the following sentences. It is used anaphorically, and its numerical meaning is plain here.

I gave papa his twelve letters — his herd of possessions — and kept back my one, my ewe-lamb.

Brontë, Villette ch. 32.

Her letters have to-day fifty readers for every one that can be claimed for the wife of Louis XIV.

Times Lit. 29/10, '14.

The rough hand of heathen conquest swept away every English kingdom but one, and that one was Wessex. Constit. Essays p. 11.

One denoting Persons

1261. *One* can be used as a class-noun to denote persons, often in contrast to *other*. Its numerical meaning is evident here.

He could not help comparing her with Mildred; and he contrasted with the one's obstinate stupidity ... the other's quick appreciation and ready intelligence.

Maugham, Of Human Bondage ch. 66 p. 334.

See 1326.

1) i.e. of the heath.

One as an Indefinite Personal Pronoun 1262. When *one* is used substantively without any qualifying word such as an article or a prepositional adjunct, it is weak-stressed, and denotes *any person*, including the speaker himself. In this meaning it is specially used when the speaker applies a general statement to a definite (often his own) case.

The book reads like a labour of love, and one is unfeignedly sorry to turn the last page.

Athenaeum 10/10, 1908.

The notes, though far from exhaustive, contain some admirable anecdotes, which one is apt to overlook when hidden away in small type. Athenaeum 22/2, 1908.

"How very strange," observed Brosy in his beautifully correct German as he dropped into a vacant chair at our table, "that you should be related to the Nieberleins." —

"One is always related to somebody," I replied; and marvelled at my own intelligence. —

"And how odd that we should meet again here." —

"One is always meeting again on an island if it is small enough." Eliz. in Rügen.

One is so weary of the machine-made historical novel that it is with impatience that one often turns the pages.

Athen. 5/12, 1908.

That same afternoon Mr. Reginald Aiken had been giving careful consideration to Diana and Actaeon¹⁾, unfinished; because, you see, he had a few days before him of peace and quiet, and rest from beastly restoration and picture-cleaning. One — himself, for instance — couldn't be expected to slave at that rot for ever.

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 8 p. 229.

1263. Sometimes *one* is nothing but another way of saying *I*; thus *passim* in Benson's *Thread of Gold*. Hence also *one wishes* in the special meaning that *I wish* has, when followed by a dependent clause (with a verb in the preterite).

1) A picture.

Here and there a name is missing which might have been included... Again one wishes that Mr. Graves had been able to accord to other poets... the adequacy of representation that he has given to Ceiriog.

Athenaeum.

1264. The distinction of this use of *one* by the term 'indefinite personal pronoun' is justified by other facts than its meaning; like the personal pronouns it has a genitive (*one's*) and a reflexive form (*oneself*). And these forms are exclusively used when *one* has the function treated here. In its meaning *someone* (1267) the pronoun *one* agrees with the personal and possessive pronouns of the third person.

The great usefulness of such studies as those given to us in these books lies perhaps in this—that they put *one* in a position from which *one* can set in order *one's* impressions of their subject, and revise *one's* previous estimates.

1265. The reason why *one* as an indefinite personal pronoun has a genitive *one's*, not *his*, seems clear: it is not a pronoun of the third person, but rather of the first, if of any person in particular.

But we sometimes find *one* used when the statement is purely individual, as in the following sentences.

I heard vaguely that some *one* was shouting and I think a policeman started forward, but anyhow the man raised his arm and in an instant there was the explosion. It went off before he was ready, I suppose, but the ground rocked under *one's* feet.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 5 p. 193.

The old man almost held his breath while I was examining the photograph. 'Est-elle gentille? Est-elle belle, Monsieur?' he besought me with a very hunger for sympathy, as I returned it. *One* answered, of course, what *one* could, as best *one* could.

Harland, in Sel. Short St. II p. 401.

In both these sentences the statement, though individual, is not really special: in the first the speaker thinks of himself as one of the bystanders who went through similar experiences; in the second the writer thinks of himself and of his behaviour as normal for people in similar circumstances.

But in jurnalese and would-be literary English generally, *one* is also used when there is no thought of a general experience, but the reference is to something special as well as personal. This is supposed to be 'refined' because it avoids the 'egotistical' *I*; the habit is ridiculed in Galsworthy's *Silver Spoon* in the person of an editor who introduces it into ordinary conversation:

He spoke in a small voice, and constantly used the impersonal pronoun.

"One is walking in one's sleep," he would say of the political situation, "and will wake up without any clothes on." I ch. 2.

1266. Sometimes the indefinite pronoun *one* is in concord with the personal and possessive pronouns of the third, less often of the second and first person (*we, you*). This is naturally disapproved of¹⁾, although the use is not rare.

Were *one* to judge humanity from novels, he would conclude that in the relations between man and woman there is rarely a case in which the man does not gain everything and the woman forfeit all. *Academy*, 21/5, 1910.

Another secret of a good complexion is the use of cold water. If *one* drinks much of it she will be surprised to see, in a few weeks, the difference it has made to her looks. *Daily Mail*.

You know, my dear, if *one* esteemed such a person very much, and were quite sure, without any doubt, that he liked you in return . . . *Meredith, Harrington* ch. 17 p. 272.

1) E.g. by the editor of the *Academy* (Lord Alfred Douglas) when its use in his paper was pointed out to him. He declared that it had 'escaped' him, and that it was an Americanism.

There is of course always, even to very happy people, a certain gentle melancholy in going back to a place where one dreamed the dreams, hoped the hopes of our early youth. What Became of Pam III ch. 14.

One as Determinative Pronoun **1267.** Like other personal pronouns, *one* can be used to refer to a person as one of a class, not to a definite person; it is always followed by an adjunct or clause to denote the class. It is, therefore, an antecedent or determinative pronoun; compare 1117 f.

One of really superior powers cannot escape these better moments and the remorse that they bring.

Morley, Compromise p. 90.

Mrs. Gibson had some old grudges of her own against him, but she was not one to retain angry feelings.

Gaskell, Wives II 78.

An examination of the subject by one somewhat more thoughtful would be very welcome. Pilot 28/9, 1901.

At the Spa tavern he gave his shoulder to the door, with the manner of one accustomed to the task.

Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 4.

For one who can read between the lines there is much that is melancholy in Mr. Tozer's Chronicle.

Times Lit. 14/9, '16.

1268. The determinative character of *one* is occasionally so slight that it may be taken in the individual meaning of *someone*, although the writer probably felt, if vaguely, that there was something general about his statement. This seems to apply to the following quotations.

Dunstan's name begins to appear so frequently in the history of the succeeding reigns that it may be well to give some account of one who exercised so much influence over many kings ... Oman, Conquest p. 535.

Although his weaknesses were not specially those akin
KRUISINGA, Handbook II. *Accidence and Syntax.* 2. 19

to physical fear, this species of *coup-de-Jarnac* from one he knew too well troubled the mind of Wildeve.

Hardy, Native IV ch. 4 p. 333.

It was told afterwards by one who remembered her in her palmy days, that her eyes were very dark and piercing.

Housman, Sheepfold p. 3.

But *one* could not be substituted in the following passages for *some one*:

This was Arkwright, the explorer, a man who had been lost in African jungles during the last five years, the very creature for Brun's purpose. Here was some one who, knowing nothing about Art, would listen all the more readily to Brun's pronouncement upon it.

Walpole, Duchess of Wrex I ch. 1.

I am unable to look it up because I have lent that volume to someone who has never sent it back¹⁾.

Wells, Country p. 444.

Evidently the Sunday²⁾ had someone at home who had not learnt the art of speech in the Five Towns.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 1 § 2.

1269. When *one* is used as a determinative pronoun it may be defined by a simple adjective. This must, naturally, follow, for adjectives always follow a pronoun (see *Word-order*).

He looked like one dead.

Bennett, Old W. Tale III ch. 7 § 1.

1270. *One* is frequently used with the proper name of a person, accompanied by a title or not. The NED. explains the construction as the noun-pronoun *one* with the name in opposition. This analysis would be accept-

1) I cannot verify this quotation because I have lent the book to someone who has never sent it back. (This note appeared in the fourth edition: a few weeks after its publication the book that was lost re-appeared on my writing-table).

2) Nickname for a boy.

able if the two elements of the group were separated by a break, as is indicated in the first two quotations below. But it is to be doubted if there is ever a break in natural English; the construction is rather to be explained as a special case of attributive *one* (1258), the difference being that in the case of a proper name there can be no connection with the numerical idea implied in the construction with class-nouns.

It was edited by one, Wilkie, who took liberties with the text. Pilot.

Another pretender, whose name is not given, was set up in the island: he fell by treachery, not by force of arms. For one, Victorinus the Moor, who had formerly been the rebels' friend and patron, pretended to flee from Probus as if in danger of his life.

Oman, Conquest p. 140.

"Did you ever come across a *protégé* of his — one Hyde?" he asked. Stevenson, Jekyll p. 19.

He died in 1859, leaving the property to one Ann Duncan.

For a short time the boy was employed by a solicitor in New Square, one Mr. Molloy. Forster-Gissing.

One as a Class-Noun 1271. *One* denoting persons is used as a class-noun, i. e. with an article or other attributive pronoun (*a*), except sometimes in addressing a person (*b*); it can also take an attributive adjective (*c*), and the plural form *ones* (*d*).

a. To-day the sewing-girl thrust out spiteful glances at me several times. She is the one that helped Georgiana last year when she was making her wedding-clothes.

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. I.

They said that neighbour such-a-one was a prisoner. Ht. Martineau¹⁾.

Why had they not told him that she was such a one as this? Trollope, Last Chron. ch. 57.

1) NED. s. v. *such*.

"Not this morning, Wilberforce. I'm taking my annual ride round the estate. You know my old customs."

"None better, Sir Richard. And what a one¹⁾ you be for keeping up old customs, if you'll permit the liberty of the observation, Sir Richard."

Mackenzie, Seven Ages ch. 1 p. 13 f.

"May I sit down for a minute?" he said.

"If you want to."

"That doesn't sound very cordial," he laughed.

"I'm not much of a one for saying pretty things."

Maughan, Human Bondage ch. 41 p. 191.

"Now, you wait and see if you don't have *another proposal from one of 'em within the fortnight*²⁾."

"Oh, go on! You are a one, you and your proposals!"

Berta Ruck, Arabella the Awful ch. 10 p. 53/4.

Neither one took any notice of the other.

Harraden, Ships that Pass in the Night p. 21.

And then his constancy had been so perfect. If that other one had never come.

Trollope, Last Chronicle ch. 52.

b. "But, Michael, how can I marry you? I haven't told you anything really about myself."

"Foolish one, you've told me everything that matters."

Mackenzie, Sylvia and Michael p. 303.

c. A knowing one. My sweet one. The Holy one. The Evil one.

God bless you, my own one!

Trollope, Framley ch. 8.

But it was neither the Gospel of Jesus nor the proclamation by His disciples of the Risen one that gained the victory.

Times Lit. 25/12, '19.

"Haven't I?" says the incorrigible one.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 37 p. 388.

Eric Tavan had gone to Switzerland . . . ; when Alfred joked with her about the absent one . . . she felt indignant.

Pickthall, Larkmeadow ch. 24.

Constance, however, felt jealous of Miss Insull; she was

1) This use is probably dialectal.

2) Italics in the original.

conscious of a slight antipathy towards the faithful one.
Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II ch. 6 § 1.

Without lighting his candle he sat down at once on the three-legged stool, and pondered on what he had seen and heard touching that still loved-one of his¹⁾.

Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 9.

d. The great ones of this world.

Be careful what you say to that woman. I don't want her here by any chance. The young ones were quite bad enough. Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 19.

Nevertheless Leonora noticed that the three young ones (viz. her daughters) seemed now to shrink into themselves. Bennett, Leonora ch. 3.

Lying there in the dark, the simple Constance never suspected that those two active and strenuous ones had been arranging her life for her.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 3 § 2.

He was content in this first term to follow loyally with other heedless ones the trend of the moment.

Sinister Street p. 545.

It is true that, according to Mr. Wilson, the sale of a few too celebrated novelists has almost ceased; but this does not disturb Mr. Wilson, nor will it greatly disturb anybody except the too celebrated ones themselves and perhaps their publishers.

Times Lit. 1/6, 1916.

In one case *ones* is used to denote individuals that are not necessarily persons: *young ones* may refer to children but also to animals: *A nest with five young ones in it.*

1272. *One* forms compounds with some indefinite pronouns: *anyone*, etc. These are treated below.

When an adjective admits of conversion, *one* is not required: *the dead*, etc. This case, like the other cases of the conversion of adjectives, is best treated in the

1) Note the hyphen.

special chapter on *Conversion* in volume 3, although it is naturally connected with the use of *one* as a class-noun.

Anaphoric One 1273. Anaphoric *one* must be distinguished as:

- (1) an anaphoric pronoun;
- (2) an anaphoric prop-word.

One as an Anaphoric Pronoun 1274. *One* is used anaphorically as a substitute for a preceding class-noun. This restriction to class-nouns is a reminder of its numerical meaning, but its function is rather that of a classifying non-proclitic article (*a*). *One* in this function can be followed by an adjective, a prepositional adjunct, or a clause (*b*). See 1269, and 1326.

a. I have agents everywhere. Old Mr. Quinney was one¹⁾. Vachell, Quinneys'.

A letter to his mother seemed the only course open, and he wrote one there and then. Sidgwick, Severins.

Though he enjoyed the theatre, he had not crossed the doors of one for twenty years.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 1.

b. And yet the age was one profuse and luxurious in all the surroundings of secular life.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 422.

The subject of this volume is and will always remain one of absorbing interest. Times Lit. 21/12, '17.

Dr. Morgan's book is one that only the present age could have produced. Times Ed. S. 1/2, '16.

That night was an eventful one to Eustacia's brain, and *one* which she hardly ever forgot.

Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 142.

It is a very striking fact, one, too, that is not disputed, to whatever extent its significance has been missed...

Massingham, Pre-Roman Britain p. 69.

1275. Sometimes *one* does not refer to a word that

1) *One: an agent.* Similarly in the other quotations.

has been mentioned but to one that is more or less clearly present in the speaker's mind.

A voice behind her said:

"Nothing nicer than darkness, is there?"

She knew at once it was the one who was going to bite. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 8.

"Shut up, Ame," he replied, smiling. Life being short, he usually called her Ame when they were alone together.

"Or I'll catch you one¹⁾ in the eye with the poker."

Bennett, *Old W.* Tale II ch. 4 § 1 p. 195.

**One as an Anaphoric
Prop-word**

1276. The numerical meaning is quite

gone when anaphoric *one* is preceded by an article (*a*) or when it is used in the plural form *ones*, either with an article (*b*) or without (*c*)²⁾; but the restriction to class-nouns points to its origin. For this function of *one* the name *prop-word* has been invented: *one* serves as a prop to the preceding article, which cannot be used without a noun or noun equivalent. *One* with the definite article is usual when the adjunct is one of those that cannot precede their headword (participles and prepositional adjuncts or a clause, etc.; see the sections on the place of attributive adjuncts).

a. We expected Lady Doleford, and Lady Barbara, and Evelyn, and perhaps Lady Doleford's sister-in-law, the one with the secretary. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 7.

That is his likeness — the one hanging against the wall behind you. Gaskell, *Wives* I ch. 5.

Stevenson will not be widely read by generations that follow the one now growing up. Pilot 26/10, 1901.

1) viz. a blow.

2) This case will be illustrated by a number of quotations, because it has been supposed, sometimes, to be rare.

But of all his doings the one that is most remembered to-day is the one that was least known to his contemporaries.

Times Lit. 5/10, '17.

"I've seen a good many parsons in my time", said Toogood; "but I don't think I ever saw such a one as him." Trollope, *Last Chronicle* ch. 77.

The absentee landlord is a curse, of course. I'm afraid I'm a bit of a one myself.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 25.

b. Of her numerous other writings the ones which seem to stand nearest to it are her familiar letters.

Lit. World.

I doubt, however, whether, if an examination could be made of the subsequent lives of the boys of my time, it would be found that the ones who acquitted themselves best either as Men or "Gentlemen" were also the ones who were the most vigorous exponents of the traditions of St. Withold.

De Morgan, *Vance* ch. 12.

c. "If you don't like them now, why do you have them? Why not plain white for the walls and no curtains at all, until you can get ones you really do like?" Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 57.

Her former visits had been ones of pleasure and social triumph. Garvice, *Iris*, ch. 11 p. 102.

He would have some fighting ships too, ones big enough to cope with those of his neighbours.

G. H. Powell, *Donovan's Island* ch. 7 p. 75.

However, there were serious complications in the case, and ones which were quite unforeseen by either the British or Irish Government. ib. ch. 15 p. 185.

To these questions the Colonel returned smooth, soothing answers, but ones which did not commit him in any way. Osbert Sitwell, *Triple Fugue* p. 102.

Also ib. 281 (ones that were not in the room).

1277. The use of the prop-word with the definite article is very similar to the use of the demonstrative

pronouns treated in 1129 ff. The prop-word has the advantage of being also used to refer to persons, and of being current in spoken English; it is sometimes preferable on account of euphony (e. g. when the conjunctive *that* follows). On the other hand, the demonstratives have the advantage of being able to refer to non-class-nouns. See also 1283.

The prop-word with the indefinite article is colloquial only. The same applies to the indefinite plural *ones*. The use with the definite article is literary as much as colloquial English, unless, indeed, the numerical idea that is always implied in anaphoric *one* seems inadmissible.

1278. The numerical meaning of the prop-word *one* is sometimes not quite gone, i. e. it is not quite a prop-word but rather a numeral. Compare 1260. In the following sentences *one* is clearly contrasted with *all*.

Of all writers Jane Austen is the one, so we should have thought, who has had the least cause to complain of her critics. Times Lit. 28/10, '20.

But of all forms of literature the essay is the one which least calls for the use of long words.

Times Lit. 30/11, 22.

1279. *One* (*a*), plural *ones* (*b*), is also used after adjectives. This place of the adjective shows that *one* is not a pronoun (1269). It is little more than a form-word, but there is enough of a numerical meaning in *one* after adjectives for it to be only used to refer to class-nouns, not to material and abstract nouns.

a. The fifth century was a critical one in the history of religion. Wakeman, Introd. p. 5.

M. Paul Meyer is a French philologist, not a German one. Mod. Lang. Teaching vol. 12.

The original Government scheme of demobilisation was a good one on paper. New Statesman, 11/1, '19.

Sophia, foremost, was carrying a large tray, and Constance a small one.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 2 § 1.

b. She saved, through blood and tears, to buy clothes and then always bought the wrong ones.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 1 § 3 p. 156.

These boys are the very ones I saw yesterday in the act of robbing a pheasant's nest.

Sweet, Spoken English p. 64.

He knew how to establish his power by old theories as well as by new ones.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. 47.

Few teachers are born, good ones must be made.

Sat. Rev. 10/11, 17.

This summer I have taken up no new book, but have renewed my acquaintance with several old ones which I had not opened for many a year.

Gissing, Ryecroft, Summer IX.

The forest, at first only pines and rather scrubby ones, stretches the whole way from Baabe to Göhren.

Eliz. in Rügen.

We have essentially the same use of *one*, although the word referred to has not been expressed, in the following cases.

That's a good one (viz. a good joke).

Dickens, Oliver Twist ch. 23.

"Good! Very good indeed. I must try to remember that one. That's the best I have heard for a long time!"

Pett Ridge, Garland.

1280. The use of *one* after converted nouns serves to make the attributive character of the nouns indubitable.

If you did not care to bring a secretary, I would promise you the services of an amateur one.

Oppenheim, A People's Man ch. 27.

He did his best to smile, and went off gawkily with the collar and came back with a linen one.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale II ch. 1 § 2 p. 152.

Mrs. Melville, when she arrived to take part in the conference, which gradually swelled to a family one, was equally unable to make Lady Jocelyn perceive . . .

Meredith, Harrington ch. 29.

But of course you were still wearing your summer underclothes the previous week. This time you had your winter ones. Punch 9/10, 1929 p. 396/3.

And I can perfectly understand her picture being in the papers, especially somehow, in the New York Sunday ones. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 5.

On a side-line was a little train that reminded Peter of the Treliss to Truro one. Walpole, Fortitude.

The competition of the Bombay mills with the Lancashire ones does not at present extend to the greater part of what we send to India. Manchester Guardian.

I don't mind the Chamonix one¹⁾, or that little chap¹⁾ under the buckle there — the one from the Canaries. But how could I face Bournemouth with all those German and Austrian hotel labels on my bag? Punch 31/3, '15.

Their attitude has become an absolute non-possumus one. Times Ed. S. 26/10, '16.

The very portraits on the walls, especially the full-length ones, seemed to look down with interest at the proceedings. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 19.

Electric engines are so imperfect now that steam ones come cheaper. Shaw, Irrational Knot.

1281. The use of *one(s)* makes it possible to use converted nouns as nominal predicates (*a*). When *one* is used after predicative adjectives that can also be used without *one* it seems to have a classifying function, in accordance with its numerical origin (*b*). See 1893.

a. My visit is a business one.

He was proud of the improvements which had made his place a show one in the country.

Pickthall, Larkmeadow ch. 6.

1) i. e. a label.

Their dormitory was a three-bed attic one.

Kipling, *Stalky and Co.*

b. Gabriel felt his position to be anything but a safe one and he resolved to descend.

Hardy, *Madding Crowd* ch. 37 p. 292.

Every age offers examples of contrary tendencies, and it is unfair to single out certain ones to the exclusion of others. Einstein, *Tudor Ideals* p. 67.

Yet the idea of a great change supervening upon insignificant causes is an instructive one.

Times Lit. 8/3, 23.

1282. There is no fundamental difference in function between *one* preceded by some word and the simple *one*: in both cases we have a prop-word, as in the following quotation.

There's one of your German bands — why, I believe it's the very same one I saw last year at the foot of Snowdon — the very last place I should have expected to meet one. Sweet, *Spoken English* p. 77.

1283. The prop-word *one* also competes with the demonstrative pronouns in combination with attributive adjectives; see 1277. In the following quotation *ones* would also be possible (*the usual ones*). Note the difference in the place of *usual*.

He could see nothing in the preparations going on which at all differed from those usual.

Montgomery, *Misunderstood* ch. 5.

It may be observed, however, that *those usual* is more collective in meaning than the individualizing plural *the usual ones*.

1284. The prop-word *one* is rarely found in written English after a personal genitive. It is not exceptional in a case like the following.

**The Prop-word One
after Genitives**

The higher course is a two years' one.¹⁾
Times Ed. S. 8/8, 18.

Nor does the use of *one* strike one as 'peculiar' when the genitive denotes a person, as long as it is a classifying one.

"But, auntie! She — the Russian dancing lady — is invited to Courts! Kings' ones, I mean."

Berta Ruck, *The Dancing Star* (T.) p. 50.

1285. In familiar English the use of *one* after specifying genitives denoting persons is not uncommon.

Your solution (of the puzzle) is better than my brother's one.

Professor Grattan, who has kindly supplied the preceding quotation, observing that it is quoted from the conversation of a 'cultured adult', adds that the use is frequent in the speech of children (*My apple isn't as big as Tommy's one*), but disapproved of in school grammars. The reason, or rather cause, of this disapproval may be in the defining character of the genitive, which does not seem to allow of the classifying *one*. It is not unnatural, because the defining genitive tends to make us look upon the leading noun as unique, not a specimen of a class. See 1287.

What used to be half a day's journey from a northern to a southern suburb is now scarce half an hour's.

Daily News.

That house is my uncle's.

Prop-word One with 1286. The use of the prop-word *one* Pronouns after possessive pronouns is uncommon.

I ought to give you my name. It's Rattray of one of the many Kirby Halls in this country. My one's down in Lancashire.

Hornung, *Dead Men Tell No Tales*.

1) The attributive [jɪəz] must be considered a genitive, for attributive nouns do not express number; see 899 ff.

"Oh, poor creatures — seldom poor dears — who've lost, you know; as I suppose your one has?"

"On the contrary," said Dick, almost sharply, "she's gained tremendous sums."

Williamson, Guest of Hercules ch. 12 p. 157.

"You don't mind, darling? It's altogether too obvious if you let your young man take you, and it'll be so good for Henri. Besides, he's charming, and you can lose yourself in the crowd directly we arrive, with your one¹⁾, if you want to."

E. M. Delafield, What is Love? (T.) p. 229.

"Miles²⁾, I went to — this funeral, and took her a lot of pink roses — your ones."

Bar. von Hutten, Flies (T.) p. 146.

1287. The quotations in the preceding section show some of the reasons why *one* is used although there are independent forms (*mine*, etc.):

- (1) the *one*-construction does not suggest such a definite meaning as the genitive of the personal pronouns (or of nouns) is apt to do. Thus, in the first two quotations and in the last the form *yours* would suggest a more intimate connection with the leading noun, if not necessarily possession, than the construction with *one*, which denotes a very vague connection only.
- (2) the *one*-construction suggests that the noun defined by it is one of a class. See 1285.

These considerations will be found to apply to the cases of *one* with pronouns that will be treated in the following sections.

1288. We find *one* as a prop-word with the interrogative (*a*) and independent relative (*b*) *which*. It is hardly ever used with *what*; for the reason, compare 1287, 2.

1) i. e. your young man.

2) Name of a person.

a. May I ask you, which one of the Universities?

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 8 p. 82.

I have a large stock in many colours. Which one(s) do you choose?

"Here's your ticket. Put it in your waistcoat-pocket now." — "But I haven't got a waistcoat on, silly." — "Which one are you going to put on?"

Which one of us is able to recall with complete sharpness all the varied details of a night's dreams?

Lowie, Prim. Religion p. 109.

b. "(Keep it a secret from Lizzie; most of all from Lizzie," I answered, very eagerly, knowing too well which one of my family would be hardest with me.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 30 p. 196.

If you require the binding cases to have your parts (of the NED) bound we shall be pleased to supply them and will quote for them on hearing from you which ones you require.

Bookseller's letter.

The examples of this section may suggest another reason for using the *one*-construction besides those pointed out in 1287: it makes it possible for number to be expressed when the pronoun does not possess distinct forms.

In the sentence from Blackmore *which* could hardly be substituted for the *which one* of the text, because *which* is only used independently with reference to persons when a prepositional adjunct with a personal pronoun defines it; see 1070.

1289. The demonstrative pronouns take the prop-word, especially the singulars *this* and *that*. *Such* can also take *one*, always with the indefinite article, producing the group *such a one*, also the traditional *such an one*.

Few biographies have had a greater vogue than this one.

Lit. World 3/12, '14.

But the story of Wittenberg happens to be that one of which the story is complete in its detail.

Times Lit. 8/6, '16.

"Yes. Beautifully dignified; beautifully secure ... Yes, those are the words for Alix."

"And it's not exactly righteousness, is it?" Giles went on, finding more words since Toppie liked these ones. "It's integrity." A. D. Sedgwick, *The Little French Girl*
II ch. 14 p. 210.

A Jacobin is one who would have his single opinion govern the world ... Such a one is Mr. Southey.
Hazlitt¹⁾.

He was merely a royalist, and such an one as may be bred and reared out of the middle class.
Swinburne¹⁾.

So you can put on decent boots to-morrow. Those ones won't be wanted any more.

Birmingham, Advent. of Dr. Whitley.

1290. *This one* and *that one* are sometimes used to refer to persons when the simple demonstratives could not be used.

Among the masters of research there is this one who was a master of the art of letters, and who offered all his art to the smaller audience. Times Lit. 16/12, '20.

It seems a pity to draw such a depressing picture of work in a big London girls' school, for there can be few, if any, headmistresses as callous to her teachers as this one. Times Lit. 9/12, '15.

I would wager there is not a better landlord nor a better fellow in all his class than this one.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 25.

The watchers (viz. of a game of billiards) along the dais were the immortalised figures in a frieze. That one who sipped a dry Martini summed up in his attitude all who had ever sipped, all who were sipping now, all who ever would sip dry Martinis.

Mackenzie, *Old Men of the Sea* ch. 2 p. 25.

1291. Similarly, *one* may enable the hearer to interpret

1) NED s.v. *such*.

the demonstratives adjectively when the simple *this* or *that* might be taken in a neuter sense.

What an irritating thing a conversation can be! Here was this one, just as one of its constituents was beginning to wish it to go on, must needs exhaust its subject and confess that artificial nourishment was needed to sustain it. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 2 p. 10.

Some impulse caused her to go towards the book-shelves; and from them she took that one of the books in which Polly had found her name written.

F. Swinnerton, *Summer Storm* (T.) p. 284.

1292. The indefinite pronouns do not generally take the prop-word *one*; naturally, for they are numerical words themselves. The only indefinites that take the prop-word other than exceptionally are *each* and *other*.

It was his natural gift to be able to state clearly point by point, argue out each one in turn and pass on to the next. Patterson, *Compton* p. 66.

He was conscious of a thousand odours in the air, each one connected with a thousand thoughts, and hopes.

Dickens, *Christmas Carol* st. 2.

The man who had the old house before me died of rheumatism, so I pulled it down, and built another one higher up. Sweet, *Spoken Engl.* p. 73.

Stanway's cob, always quicker to start than to stop, had been pulled up with difficulty, drawing his cart just clear of the other one. A. Bennett, *Leonora* ch. 1.

If then we find our text-book difficult, the best way is to try another one. Baker, *Uses of Libraries* p. 39.

1293. *One* is found after cardinal numbers used to denote the time (*a*); also after *first*, *second*, and *third*, though these are generally used without *one* (*b*). *One* after the higher ordinals is exceptional.

a. "Well, which train shall we go by to-morrow? There's one at nine and another at half past twelve."

"We'd better take the nine one, if it is not too early for you." Sweet, Spoken English p. 80.

b. The present edition is the first one of any of Alfred's works which is based on contemporary manuscripts.

Sweet, Preface to Cura Pastoralis.

Find the book for me on the shelf; it is the third one from the left.

Every fresh impression confirmed the first ones.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 3.

1294. After comparatives *one* is often used, but they are as frequently found without *one*. The use is not arbitrary, however: we find *one* after the comparative of superiority, we do not find it after the comparative of contrast (1734 ff.).

(1) On the whole, therefore, the view that Chaucer's so-called 'Italian period' dates from his first Italian journey, that is, from the year 1373, seems the more reasonable one. Edinb. Rev. April 1908.

The conception was a nobler one.

Wakeman, Introd. p. 92.

I did not mention the subject of Audubon and her father, for it is never well to let an elder sister know that a younger one has been talking about her.

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 6.

I began to think of many things, and my thoughts were happier ones than I had known for months.

On the other hand new conceptions have not by any means invalidated all the older ones.

Times Lit. 4/5, '16.

(2) The author is more uniformly successful in his rhymed poems, particularly in the shorter of them.

Athenaeum, 2/9, 1905.

Mr. H. . . . who was four or five inches the taller of the two.

Hole, Memories p. 82.

1295. After relative superlatives *one* is sometimes found (*a*); but they are oftener used without (*b*). The prin-

ciples guiding speakers do not seem to be quite so clear as in the case of the comparative (1254).

When Mr. Johnston's book on 'Writing and Illuminating' appeared, we stated ... that this work was, in our opinion, the best one on the subject that has been written for English students. *Athenaeum* 16/7, 1910.

In our modern civilization the least esteemed and the worst paid of our workers are precisely the only absolutely necessary ones — the tillers of the soil; and their lives, which might be the most happy ones, ... are among the dullest and most hopeless of those of the sons of men. *ib.* 3/8, '12.

The midsummer aspect of New York is not perhaps the most favourable one. James, *Daisy Miller* p. 111.

b. His method was not perhaps the best, but he was the ablest exponent of the method of his time.

Now we are told that the battle — the old word is still the most convenient — rages with great violence around Lens and La Bassée. *Times W.* 9/10, '14.

In the following quotation *latest* might be considered as a converted adjective but it resembles the case of *a good one* in 1279.

You haven't heard his latest, I suppose?

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* p. 522.

1296. After absolute superlatives with *most* the prop-word is regularly used. This agrees with the facts in 1294.

I want no other room; I have got a most comfortable one.

1297. The consequence of the use of the prop-word *one* is that its absence is also of grammatical importance. In the preceding sections some cases have been mentioned when *one* is sometimes used and sometimes absent, and the causes have been explained. This will help us in interpreting the cases when *one* is invariably or almost invariably absent although an attributive word is used with reference to a preceding class-noun.

It is hardly necessary to state that the prop-word *one*, being a numeral, is not used after attributive cardinals: *He has got three rabbits and I have only two.*

He had been working at it for three years, and he had been in London seven.

Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 1 § 2 p. 152.

Perhaps it is the pronominal function of *following* that causes it to be used without *one*.

This is proved by such an example as the following.

1298. Absence of *one* is very common when two things or two kinds are contrasted; see 1294 on *one* after comparatives. In the following cases the prop-word *ones* would individualize the nouns referred to, whereas they are required to express a collective meaning.

He would watch the decay of the old trees and the progress of the young, and make pictures in his eye of every turn in the wood. Trollope, Framley ch. 37.

He could not bring himself to tackle new books, and the old had lost the potency of their appeal.

Cannan, Corner ch. 22.

Everywhere small establishments have been swallowed up in large. Escott, England I p. 7.

We are a mere handful. We have dwindled to four white men among a host of dark.

Dell, Way of an Eagle p. 19.

Winnie suggested, in regard to foreigners, there were probably good and bad as with us.

Pett Ridge, Name of Garland ch. 14.

1299. Contrast may be the cause of the absence of the prop-word in the following cases.

Mother, I could have wished to come to see you in a red coat¹). It has been ordered that I should wear a black²). Cannan, Round the Corner ch. 1.

1) i. e. as a military man. 2) i. e. as a clergyman.

Once the steamer ticket is paid for, one gets anxious about the question of cabin companion ... Will he snore? Will he be a good sailor or a bad?

Algernon Blackwood, Morning Post 9/4, '12.

Pity as a motive, as well as a feeling in itself, is stronger in an old doctor than in a young, so he be made of the right stuff. Hole, Memories p. 99.

This state of things has its good side as well as its bad. Wakeman, Introduction p. 69.

Some sub-committees were appointed, among them a Welsh and a Scottish. Times W. 10/10, '13

1300. It is probably for this reason that *one* as a prop-word is never used after *own*, and in other cases of strong contrast.

I am not a tenant of this house; it's my own.

The bedpost was his own, the bed was his own, the room was his own. Dickens, Christmas Carol.

My right foot is a little larger than my left.

The Old Testament fills three times as many pages as the New.

The Northern half of the world has much more land than the southern.

1301. When there is no contrast to be expressed the use of the attributive word without *one* is often purely literary.

Sottise is a strong word and a dangerous when applied to a master of prose. Times Lit. 27/1, '16.

But in the following case it seems to be natural English, according to 1298.

This was the experience, if I am not mistaken, speaking broadly and generally, of all the Greek poets, of all the Roman, of all the French, and all the German.

Bailey, Question of Taste p. 10.

1302. When the numerical meaning of the prop-word *one* makes its use undesirable, it is possible to repeat the noun after the second attributive word.

Nothing more was done in the nineteenth century, but already no fewer than five new dioceses have been erected in the twentieth century.

Clayton, *Dioceses* p. 28.

Langland stands for the theological conception of life and Chaucer for the sensuous or Renaissance conception¹⁾.

Sefton Delmer, *Eng. Lit.*

It was clear that owing to the situation we must choose between the Bulgarian route and the Serbo-Greek route. G. M. Trevelyan, *Contemp. Rev.* Aug. '13.

Compare the repetition, although without an attributive word, in the following.

The qualifications which frequently invest the façade of a prison with far more dignity than is found in the façade of a palace double its size lent to this heath a sublimity ... Hardy, *Native I* ch. 1 p. 5.

1303. The use of *one* is often avoided in literary English by putting the noun after the last adjective.

No one who compares English with foreign universities can fail to be struck by the prominence of literary, philosophical and historical studies in our education.

Oxf. and Camb. *Rev.* no. 1.

Now the commonly received explanation of this is that Italian are naturally stronger than English throats.

Pilot 12/9, 1903.

Consider what has happened in India. The most practical and energetic of Western has been brought into contact with the most contemplative of Eastern nations.

Cromer, *Imperialism*.

But it is always the piquant rather than the significant fact which gains popular currency.

Times Lit. 30/11, '17.

1304. The use of the independent genitive of nouns and personal pronouns serves the same end.

1) Avoidance of *one* may here be due to the abstract meaning of the noun. But see the second quotation of 1294.

Even with all allowance for the convention and feeling of the day, Dryden's was not a dignified position.

Verrall, Lectures p. 17.

His was not a very reflective mind.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 11.

On the whole ours is a good corps. Punch 31/3, 15.

Mine was, I think, the last house he visited before he went to Brighton. Hole, Memories, p. 165.

The Indefinite Article

Forms 1305. The indefinite article is [ən] *an*, or [ə] *a*. We use [ən] *an* before syllabic sounds, [ə] *a* before non-syllabic sounds; the stressed forms are [æn] and [eɪ].

an old man

a man

an heiress

a history

a historical novel

1306. Before unstressed *h*, less often before [ju] *u*, some writers make a point of using *an*:

an hotel, unit, university, humiliation.

Sinister Street, p. 550, 508, 686, 724.

an historical explanation of our Parliamentary form;
an habitual practice; an usage. Freeman, Growth p. 130.

The use of *an* before words with initial *h*- in a weak-stressed syllable is partly genuine, like the occasional use of [ɛɪ], see 1164. But in many cases *an* is a traditional usage that is imitated by those who wish to distinguish themselves from the common herd, even if it can only be done by a deviation in their spelling.

The use of *an* is exclusively traditional before *one*, and words with initial [ju], both of which began with a syllabic sound in earlier English.

1307. Before abbreviations we use *a* or *an* according to the sound that follows. So *an M.P.* is read [ən em

pi], but *a M. P.* is equally possible: [ə membər əv pɔləmənt]; *an R. A.* [ən ɑr ei] i.e. a member of the Royal Academy (of Painting).

It was written as a thesis for a M.A. [ə mastər əv ats] degree at Toronto University.

[iz ij ən em dij? ¹⁾]

ou nōu, ij z ounl̄i ən em aa sij es ²⁾].

Sweet, Spoken English p. 72.

She's a M.F.H. ³⁾.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 7.

1308. The indefinite article is, speaking historically, **Use** the weak form of attributive *one*.

The two words, although formally distinct, have so much in common that a treatment of the uses of the indefinite article can best be made intelligible if we base it on the original identity of the two words.

The indefinite article is sometimes used in a purely numerical meaning. As in the case of attributive *one*, however, this has led to two functions that we may distinguish by the terms applied to the similar uses of attributive *one*:

(1) the classifying article;

(2) the individualizing article. Compare 1258.

1309. The purely numerical meaning of **The Numerical Article** the indefinite article is found in traditional groups, especially in negative sentences, including close groups with *not* or *never* (1275).

The numerical meaning is sometimes very prominent.

He was so well built that not a movement of his limbs was heavy. Galsworthy, Frelands p. 73.

1) M.D. i.e. Medicinae Doctor.

2) M.R.C.S. i.e. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons.

3) . e. Master of the Fox Hounds.

But the man spoke never a word, and remained quite still. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 2 p. 14.

She chaffed him, criticised him, admired him, absorbed him and flattered him in a breath.

Walpole, *Fortitude* III ch. 1 § 2 p. 235.

I haven't understood a word of what he said.

It costs a shilling only.

The Classifying Article **1310.** The numerical meaning is closely connected with the most important function of the indefinite article in living English: its use with singular class-nouns. In fact, all nouns can be converted into class-nouns by prefixing the indefinite article. Thus *virtue* is usually an abstract noun but it is a class-noun in *poverty is not a crime but it is not a virtue either*. *Milton* is usually a proper name, but it is a class-noun in *Nobody is bound to be a Milton*. On the indefinite article before nouns with a plural form, see 818.

There would be little use in quoting single sentences to illustrate each function of the article, because the two leading functions are frequently found in one sentence. A few illustrations will be added below, but of the article it may be observed, with greater truth even than of many other parts of syntax, that it should be studied in its natural surroundings, i. e. in a complete context.

1311. In exclamatory sentences *what* is followed by a class-noun with the indefinite article. This distinguishes the exclamatory from the interrogative *what*, though naturally only in the case of the stem of a class-noun following *what*. See 1062. The article is also found in subordinate exclamations.

What a foolish thing to say.

What a charming face! What long, strange, beautiful

eyes! What delicate features! But how cross the small lady was!

What a hurry you are in. NED. s. v. *hurry*, 5.

You don't know what a privilege it is to be a man.

The use of *what a many* is not considered Standard English.

What a many novels there must be that would have told all about it! De Morgan, Vance ch. 50.

1312. It should be remembered that some nouns can be looked upon as class-nouns but also as abstract nouns. This explains the varied practice in the following quotations.

What a difference to one's well-being is made by the possession of a comb. Rider Haggard, Meeson's Will.

What difference I found between your words and mine.
Strand Mag. April 1916.

What a great service you have rendered me, John!
Stevenson, Uncle Bernac.

What good service this pen has done me!
John Halifax.

1313. The indefinite article is also used before verbs to show their partial conversion into nouns; see vol. 3.

1314. Like *one*, the indefinite article can also refer to an individual specimen of a class, so that it approaches the meaning of 'a certain'.

Once upon a time there lived on the edge of a wide common a poor shoemaker and his wife, etc.

1315. The article can also be used in this way before a personal proper name if this is preceded by a title. If used before a proper name without a title the indefinite article has the function of making the proper name into a class-noun; see 1310.

For a happy change he was sent to school, to the establishment of a Mr. Jones. Forster-Gissing p. 32.

From the church they went about their proper business, to interview a Mr. Pogram, of the firm of Pogram and Collet, solicitors. Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 22.

The Two Chief Functions of the Indefinite Article

1316. It has been stated in the preceding sections that the indefinite article has two chief functions, which are termed *classifying* (1) and *individualizing* (2). The following sentences may serve to illustrate them.

He was a John the Baptist (1) who took ennoblement rather than repentance for his text.

Hardy, Native III ch. 2 p. 211.

Had he lived in the Middle Ages he would certainly have been neither a Francis (1) nor an Aquinas (1), but he might have been an Innocent (1).

Lyton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 1.

A New English Grammar (1), Historical and Logical.
By Henry Sweet.

An exceptionally well-built man (2) in a blue serge suit (1) walked into a bank (2) in the City.

de Morgan, Somehow Good, first sentence.

The Definite and the Indefinite Article Compared

1317. The two articles have distinct functions that have hardly anything in common. There is nothing in the indefinite article that corresponds with the defining, nor with the anaphoric definite article. Neither is there any function of the definite article that is similar to the numerical or the individualizing indefinite article. In one case, however, the two words have functions that closely resemble each other; they have been denoted by the same term: classifying. It will help the student more fully to appreciate the importance of the articles in English sentence-structure if he compares

the two words in their classifying functions. This can best be done by studying complete texts, not isolated sentences. Thus in a little book on *Medieval Reckonings of Time* by R. L. Poole (Helps for Students of History, S. P. C. K., 1918) I find:

The year was popularly divided into four Seasons, the middle of which was fixed at the time of the Equinoxes and Solstices (p. 25).... *A year* may be indicated by its place in the current reign, or in a cycle or repeating series of years, or in a series counted from a definite date or era (p. 27).... Under the Roman Empire *the year* was marked by the names of the Consuls, ... (p. 27).... *The Roman civil year* began on January 1, ... (p. 41).

1318. A noun that is defined and would seem to require the definite article sometimes takes the indefinite article. The reason is that the noun with the defining adjunct or clause is looked upon as a whole, and this syntactic group can take the classifying indefinite article.

Yeobright loved his kind. He had *a conviction* that the want of most men was knowledge of *a sort* which brings wisdom rather than affluence.

Hardy, Native III ch. 2 p. 211.

I have *a right* to demand an explanation of your words.

Boys had *a habit* of stopping to kick with their full strength at the grating.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 1.

Happily we are in *a position* to give the circumstances with all the exactitude that may be necessary.

Wells, Christina Alberta's Father II ch. 2 § 1.

Other

1319. *Other*, though classed as a pronoun, can be used as an ordinary adjective (*a*) or as a noun (*b*). As a noun it must have an article: *another*, *the other*, except when it is found with the plural ending of nouns: *others*; it also occurs in the genitive: *another's* (*c*). The

noun *other(s)* denotes persons; it may also denote things, but only when the noun is mentioned¹⁾.

a. The other member for the county of Dublin was Colonel Patrick Sarsfield.

"Here is another lesson to say nothing," said he. "I am ashamed of my long tongue..." Stevenson, Jekyll p. 13 f.

The other boys had nothing to do with it.

You know he was blind of one eye, and now he has lost his other eye, too.

b. Afterwards the door opened, and Fairway appeared on the threshold, accompanied by Christian and another.

Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 169.

If you don't go soon another will be there before you.

He was thunder-struck, a week later, when Michael rang him up at Mapledurham to say that Fleur had been served with a writ for libel in letters containing among others the expressions 'a snake of the first water' and 'she hasn't a moral about her.'

Galsworthy, Silver Spoon I ch. 13 p. 97.

c. The same word may be 'popular' in one man's vocabulary and 'learned' in another's.

Greenough and Kittredge, Words p. 21.

1320. In all the quotations given hitherto, *other* denotes one of two which remains after one is taken, or it denotes one of two groups into which we divide persons or things. Sometimes *other* means second or additional²⁾.

Guided by habit she had (as she did every other morning) gone up a street to the right, crossed a square... Berta Ruck, The Unkissed Bride (T.) p. 16.

Will you have another cup?

1) The reference may be so vague, in adjuncts with *among*, as to be doubtful.

But they apply to the majority of those cases which fall strictly within their limits. Among others they applied rather strikingly to Ernest Kersan.

Rider Haggard, Witch's Head T. ch. 8 p. 102.

2) The fact that *other* originally meant 'second' does not alter the fact that this meaning is not the primary one of *other* in present-day English: a shifting has taken place.

1321. The noun *other* is very exceptionally preceded by another qualifier than an article.

I wish the reviewer or some other could inform me of its whereabouts. Academy, 1905.

Whether Eustacia was to add one other to the list of those who love too hotly to love long and well, the forthcoming event was certainly a ready way of proving.

Hardy, Native III ch. 5 p. 257.

1322. *Other*, though used as an ordinary adjective or as a class-noun in many cases, is also used in ways that cause it to approach the character of pronouns.

In the first place *other* when used to refer to a preceding noun is freely used without the prop-word *one*, like the numerals and many pronouns.

Use Pears' soap once and you will use no other.

In the second place *other* is sometimes used in a meaning closely resembling that of the demonstrative pronouns.

When they talked about Klondyke the other day, for instance, and he seemed to know so much about it...
de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 6 p. 55.

The pronominal character of *other* is often still more marked when it is an element of a correlative group. These will now be dealt with.

1323. Sometimes *some* or *one* and *other* combined by *or* form a single group (1) (*a*), although *some... or other*, *one... or other*, is the more usual order (2). The group may be used attributively (*a*), independently with an *of*-adjunct (*b*), or with a compound like *something* (*c*).

(1) Close group.

a. And it is equally clear that some or other Act in Parliament, some or other statesmanlike move in foreign affairs, or even some or other victory won in the nation's name but without the remotest kind of benefit to its

people — that all these, and other noteworthy public events, may have no earthly reference to the actual mind of the people. English Review, May 1913 p. 323.

Almost every acre in Africa is under the protectorate of one or other European Power. Rev. of Reviews.

b. She usually offended her guests by immersing herself deeply in conversation with one or other of her neighbours. Etiquette.

c. Something or other had happened just before she left home. Gaskell, Wives II p. 219.

The two girls had usually some nightly conversation in one or other of their bedrooms¹⁾; but to-night Cynthia said something or other about being terribly tired, and hastily shut her door. ib. II p. 36.

(2) Loose group.

For some reason or another Curwen had found that he could not sleep. Nash's Mag.

I saw it in some book or other.

One.... another 1324. *One.... another* are used attributively to refer to an indefinite number.

Innumerable insects skimmed across the surface of the water, and one or two bees droned idly, as they flew from one water-lily to another.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 12.

For one thing, he was pre-eminently a national historian... For another thing, he never could be bothered to decipher manuscripts or read records.

Hearnshaw, Records p. 9.

1325. *One and another* means *two or more persons*.

I have heard it from one and another during the week.
NED. s. v. one no. 17.

1) Note that *one or other* is not the combination here meaning *some*; it refers to two bedrooms. Similarly in the following: "One of us goes, that's certain, if you please, mum," is the sort of ultimatum I am in the habit of receiving about once a fortnight from one or other of the contending powers (i. e. two servants). Glow-worm Tales, Tauchnitz p. 258.

The one.... the other 1326. *The one.... the other* are used when speaking of two, both as noun- (a) and as adjective-pronouns (b). This use is evidently connected with that of the demonstrative pronouns.

a. She took Cynthia into her arms with gentle power, and laid her head against her own breast, as if the one had been a mother and the other a child.

Gaskell, *Wives III*, p. 160.

The true answer is, that there exists an important distinction between a change of public opinion and an alteration in the course of legislation. The one has in modern England never been rapid, the other has sometimes, though rarely, been sudden.

Dicey, *Law and Public Opinion* p. 31.

Assize and *size* are so different in sense that no one would think of them as the same word, and yet the one is only a shortened pronunciation of the other.

Bradley, *Making of English*.

b. It is possible now to think of the Middle Ages and their literature without prejudice on the one side or on the other.

Ker, *Eng. Lit.* p. 12.

The speech of the Prime Minister in the one House, and of Lord Curzon in the other, did little more than touch upon some of the more wonderful of the feats achieved.

Times W. 2/11, 17.

In *Macbeth* we see and hear the Witches, in *Hamlet* the Ghost. In the first scene of *Julius Caesar* and of *Coriolanus* those qualities of the crowd are vividly shown which render hopeless the enterprise of the one hero and wreck the ambition of the other.

Bradley, *Shakespearean Tragedy*.

1327. When *the one* and *the other* refer severally to two persons or things previously named, they are by some taken as equivalent to *the former* and *the latter*, by others as *the latter* and *the former*.

Sometimes the article is not used before *one* in this construction (a). Occasionally *one* is repeated (b).

a. The history of Bonnivard had evidently, as they say, gone into one ear and out of the other.

James, Daisy Miller ch. 2.

There are two ways of being a slave to the public. One is to be afraid to agree with it.

Bradley, Reaction against Tennyson p. 6.

It throws as much light on the constitution of the United States as upon the constitution of England, that is, it throws from a legal point of view no light upon one or the other.

Dicey, Law of the Constit. Lect. I p. 15.

b. Some words, like *envelope* and *avalanche*, have two pronunciations, one English, and one as nearly French as possible.

1328. *Each other* and *one another* are used **Each other**, as reciprocal pronouns. There seems to be **one another** no real foundation for the statement frequently made that *each other* generally implies only two, *one another* more than two persons.

The Crescent which was on the North side of Regent's Park, was not a sociable Crescent. The people living in it did not know each other, and at first none of them knew the Severins. Sidgwick, Severins ch. 1.

These two war-books are complementary to one another.

It (viz. Jane Austen's Emma) contains, in Mr. Woodhouse and Miss Bates, two minor characters who resemble one another in being the object equally of our laughter and our unqualified respect and affection.

Bradley, Essays II p. 21.

After all, they need one another. They had both had hard times, they were both lonely.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 81.

Compare also the last quotation of 521.

On the reciprocal meaning of the compound personal pronouns, see 1030.

Otherwise 1329. A compound or derivative of *other* is *otherwise*. It is used as an adverb of manner, meaning 'differently' (a), and as a conjunctive adverb (b).

a. Perhaps I should have treated him otherwise.

He did not remember the drawing-room otherwise than as a closed room¹⁾. Montgomery, Misunderstood.

b. Do what I tell you; otherwise things will go wrong.

Else 1330. A synonym of *otherwise* as a conjunctive adverb (1329 b) is *else*. It is frequently used also as an adjunct to preceding interrogative and indefinite pronouns and pronominal adverbs: *who else*, *what else*, *somebody else*, *everybody else*, *somewhere else*, etc., also after *much*, *little*, *a good deal*, and after *things*.

Like *other* it may mean something or somebody 'as an alternative' or 'additional', or 'different'.

Have you seen anybody else?

What else could I do?

Singing is little else than a highly beautiful speaking.
If it is not my business, it is nobody else's.

I saw the circle shining white and bright, and the rod black and shining, and many things else distinct and clear. Wells, Country p. 178.

When you enjoy a writer thoroughly you do not ask yourself whether he is superior to some other writer, as, when you love anyone, you do not ask whether he is better than someone else. Times Lit. 26/10, 17.

Same

1331. *Same* expresses identity with what follows in a clause with *as* or *that* or with a relative pronoun; see *Conjunctions*. It is also used to refer backward: "I went on Monday." "We intended to go on the same day, but were prevented." It may also express identity of one person

1) This resembles the predicative use.

or thing at different times or in different circumstances :
He is always the same to everybody.

The word is always preceded by the definite article or a demonstrative pronoun.

The identity may be undetermined; this sense may be emphasized by *one and the same*.

All the planets travel round the sun in the same direction.

They belong to one and the same class.

When *same* is used predicatively without a pronominal qualifier, it is an adjective, equivalent to 'monotonous'. This usage is exceptional.

The choruses in 'Judith' are numerous, and to the lay mind perhaps a little same.

Pall Mall Gaz. 3/2, 1891 (NED.).

Several

1332. *Several* is used attributively (*a*), less often independently, (*b*) to refer to a number forming a group, generally more than two. If preceded by a pronoun (or article) it refers to each individual of the group (*c*) and is often equivalent to *respective* (*d*). *Several* is technically used as an adjective meaning 'private' when referring to the form of ownership of land (*e*).

a. Several days have passed since I wrote to him.

b. As the Cynic spoke, several of the party were startled by a gleam of red splendour.

Hawthorne, in Sel. Short Stories III p. 9.

Beneath the shelter of one hut... sat this varied group of adventurers, all so intent upon a single object that.... Several related the circumstances that brought them thither. ib. p. 4.

c. The several characters of the story are well handled, notably a smart woman of the world. Athen. 22/2, 1908.

The first commonwealth able to solve the problems

which Athens and Persia in their several ways had failed to solve was that of Rome.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. 4.

d. Our thanks are due to Mr. A. F. Bartholomew, Mr. G. A. Brown and Mr. H. V. Routh for specific assistance in respect of the bibliographies to which their several initials are appended.

Camb. Hist. of Eng. Lit. vol XI, pref. note.

It might be thought that one special topic would have absorbed us, that we would have rushed to discuss the engagement of our several brother and sister.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 23.

e. Caesar describes the Suevi as having no several or private estates. Stubbs, Early Eng. Hist. p. 5.

Some

1333. *Some* refers to what is assumed to be actually existing, although the person or thing may not have been mentioned, and may be unknown. Before a singular noun it means a certain quantity (*a*) or 'a certain', 'one.... or other' (*b*); before a plural (or collective) noun it refers to a number of three or more (*c*).¹⁾

a. I want some money, please.

He waited for some time, but at last he went away.

b. I am going to ask him to put his case into some lawyer's hands. Trollope, Last Chronicle I ch. 21.

Some more regular and constitutional solution of his problem will have to be found. Times W. 9/11, '17.

c. He has been here some years.

Some watches are better than others.

Some people paid ten shillings for their seats.

1334. *Some* is also used as a noun, when it denotes a number of persons (*a*); when followed by an *of-* adjunct it can refer to an uninflected (abstract or material) noun (*b*)

1) For an indefinite number smaller than three *one or two*, a *couple* are used.

or to a plural class-noun denoting persons or things (*c*). In the last case *some* itself is plural in meaning. See 1220 on *any* and 1343 on *someone*.

a. I shouldn't have cared about the man, though some may say he's good-looking. Hardy, Native I ch. 3.

b. Give me some of the wine.

We are painfully striving to-day to recover some of that international sense which was lost in the deluge of nationalism in the sixteenth century. Times Lit. 11/3, '20.

I agree with some of what you say.

Compton Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline.

Sally and her mother were going to the seaside all August and some of September.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 26 p. 282.

c. Higher up there are some of the most sublime scenes I have looked on anywhere.

Roper, By Track and Trail XV,
27 (NED. s.v. *some* no. 6).

1335. *Some* is used before words and word-groups denoting number to express 'about, more or less' (*a*). Its use as an adverb of degree is restricted to familiar English (*b*); see 1112.

a. Some hundred people were present.

(The book was) published some quarter of a century ago.

Athen. 8/11, '13.

In some half minute she came out again.

E. F. Benson, House of Defence¹⁾.

At the present moment some half-million people are saving steadily year by year. Winston Churchill¹⁾.

Some fifty years ago.

b. It used to amuse me some to find the slave-holders wanted more territory. NED.

In the following quotations *some* is an adjunct to a predicative noun, which has an adjectival function; it seems

1) Dr. Arvid Smith in Moderna Språk, Sept. 1929.

reasonable, therefore, to look upon *some* as used adverbially.

"By Jove, Caruthers," said Lovelace, from Harding's well-behaved dormitory, "that man Tester is some lad."

Waugh, Loom of Youth III ch. 1.

"This his best car or his second best?" Alfred asked.

"Well, which do you think it is?"

"If it is his second best the best must be some car."

A. Bennett, in Strand Mag. Aug. 1926.

He is a great little fellow, and some poet.

Galsworthy, Silver Spoon I ch. 4 p. 29.

A general strike at twelve hours' notice: "Some" test of the British character! Id., Swan Song I ch. 1 p. 12.

1336. It may be useful to compare the use of *some* and *any* (*a*), especially in interrogative and conditional sentences; see 1218 (*b*).

a. When she was gone he stood listening at the door for some sound — for any sound, even the sound of her dress. Galsworthy, Country House II ch. 11.

He was surprised to see any human being in the lonely and unfrequented place, but supposing it to be some one of the neighbourhood in need of his assistance, he hastened down to yield it. W. Irving, Sketch-Book p. 39.

The old ideal of the scientific man that he should know something of everything, and everything of something, will have to be modified, lest in the effort to learn something of everything he should leave himself no time or energy to know much of anything. Times Lit. 19/1, '17.

A boy should know, even if at second hand, that in this world some one has to work for whatever anyone enjoys; and he should know also that it is the duty of every one, however born and bred, to give value for what he gets. Times Ed. S. 25/9, '19.

b. Can you give me some lunch, Clare? I don't mean to go home till three. Gaskell, Wives II p. 203.

Have you any money? — (The speaker has doubts as to the person addressed having money).

Have you some money for me? — (The speaker knows, or thinks he knows, that the person addressed has the

money, but only asks if he is willing to give him some).

Is there any difficulty in this? (There may or may not be a difficulty in this).

Is there some difficulty in this? — (The words or the behaviour of the person addressed lead the speaker to believe that there really is some difficulty).

I saw the doctor leaving Mr. B.'s house. I went up to him, and asked: "Is somebody ill there?" — (I say *some* because I can't imagine the doctor would visit B.'s house except to see a patient. But I should ask: "Is anybody ill there?" if the doctor was a friend of Mr. B.'s and might call as such).

Cannot you give me some hints? — (i. e. You could if you would).

Cannot you give me any hints? — (You say you cannot but I can hardly believe it).

Webster defines *solicitous* as 'eager to obtain something desirable, or to avoid anything evil'.

What would I have given, if I had had anything to give, to have been sent back to any other school, to have been taught something anywhere.

Dickens in Forster-Gissing.

As soon as there are no trains to catch a journey becomes magnificently simple. We might loiter as long as we liked on the road if only we got to some place, any place, by nightfall. Eliz. in Rügen. — (Here *some place* is used first: we had to get to some place to find a home for the night; then follows *any place*, i. e. it did not matter at all what place they came to).

He attempted to sketch her face on a bit of paper, but had no skill, and he thrust the paper into the paper-basket, horrified at having made anything so hideous in the effort to represent anything so beautiful. — (The draughtsman is represented as being so horrified at the result of his attempt that he treats the fact that the drawing was hideous as doubtful, as if he disbelieved the evidence of his senses, and asked the question: 'How could anybody produce anything as ugly as this in representing anything so beautiful as this face is?').

In negative sentences we generally find *any*. But if the negation serves to contradict a statement made, or to contrast two things, *some* is used in its ordinary meaning¹⁾.

... But what they gained in universality, they lost in vivacity and immediate truth. You cannot get something for nothing. Some people think that universality can be paid for too highly. Huxley, Vulgarity p. 18.

A play isn't something you read, it's something actors do on a stage. Manch. Guardian W. 1923.

The common distinction that is drawn between books for children and books about children does not seem to me to amount to much more than an excuse for providing children with something inferior. And children do not want something inferior or something specialized. ib. 1922.

The negation may also distinctly be a word-modifier.

At first they (the old printers) had the M.S. in mind when setting out to print a book and produced not something new and distinctive but something closely resembling a M.S. John o'London's Weekly 1924.

Sundry

1337. *Sundry* is used as an indefinite numeral, expressing 'a number of, several.' It is literary rather than colloquial.

Sundry experienced and fat old women were standing or sitting at their cottage doors.

Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 2 § 5.

He is a great reader and must have a wonderfully retentive memory, because whether the subject is Greek literature, gardening, chemistry, engineering or horse-racing, he is equally at home with all and sundry.

Strand Mag. June 1925 p. 543/I.

1) The quotations of this section, except the first, are borrowed from Dr. Arvid Smith's article in Moderna Språk, March 1925.

Thing

1338. *Thing* sometimes hardly has a meaning of its own, and may be looked upon as a pronoun (*a*). The pronominal character is also shown by the absence of the article before *things*, as in the first two quotations. It is still more distinctly a pronoun when it is used as a means of using an adjective in the function of a neuter noun (*b*); this use of *thing* may be compared with that of *one* in 1271. For the effect of its pronominal function on the place of adjectives, see *Word-order*.

a. Zachary had beads and silks, and little silver images in his basket, and he had stayed there in a little room over the shop, and things had prospered with him.

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 3 § 2 p. 31 f.

Just now it is the summer of things; there is life and music everywhere. Fairless, *Roadmender* I.

I'll buy a cloak for her the first thing to-morrow morning. Anstey, *Tinted Venus*.

b. The most remarkable thing about the Lapp is that he can live in Lapland — that is in the Arctic regions, where Norway, Sweden, and Russia push towards the Pole. Times Lit. Suppl. 12/10, 1917.

The valuable thing that the Norman Conquest gives us is a strong kingship which makes for national unity.

Maitland, *Constitutional History* p. 9.

And the important thing was that everybody's plans should be carried out. Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 14 p. 165.

Compare *thing* as a class-noun, both to express the usual meaning and to refer to persons (*She is a funny old thing*).

Its character is rather pronominal in the following sentence: *They grew a lot of figs and things at Worthing* (Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 3 p. 25 f.).

See 1352 ff. on pronominal compounds with *-thing*, and 1720.

COMPOUND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

1339. The pronouns *every* and *no*, which are used attributively only, and the pronouns *any* and *some* whose use as nouns is restricted, form noun-pronouns with *-body*, *-one*, and *-thing*. The form of these compounds: *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*, etc. does not call for comment; except the compounds with *no*: *no one*, *none*, *nobody*, *nothing*. *Each* forms a compound with *one* only (not with *body*).

The use of these compounds as far as the first element is concerned does not show any peculiarities. But the use of the second element, especially the character of the compounds in *-one*, the *difference* between the compounds in *-body* and *-one*, when denoting persons, and the distinctions between *none* and *no one* must be specially treated. The second element of these compounds is pronominal. Two of them have been treated in the chapter on *Indefinite Pronouns*, viz. *one* and *thing*; *body* is not so used in Standard English, but it occurs in familiar or dialectical English for 'person', as in the following sentences.

She appeared to be what she was — a quiet body
wearing from choice inconspicuous clothes.

H. Vachell in Strand Mag. July 1925 p. 23.

... incoherent letters of the odd foreign bodies with
whom she consorted. Sidgwick, Severins p. 61.

Compounds in -body **1340.** The compounds with *-body* are *anybody*, *everybody*, *nobody*, *somebody*; they denote persons (*a*). They are also used as determinative pronouns (*b*).

a. Euphemism was in the mouth of everybody who was anybody in the circle that fluttered round the Queen.

Mair, Eng. Lit. p. 51.

Down the narrow stone stairs everybody poured.

Sinister Street p. 534.

I want somebody to hold the picture for me.

The effort to please everybody usually results in pleasing nobody.' Manchester Exam. 6/11, 1885.

They hold the opinion that everybody they get hold of may be an important witness.

Carolyn Wells, Vicky Van ch. 11 p. 160.

b. I feel like somebody who has tried to share with other people the incommunicable pleasures of a dream.

Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea ch. 2 p. 24.

Compounds in -one 1341. The compounds in *-one* must be distinguished according as *one* is:

(1) the numeral *one*;

(2) the noun-pronoun *one* denoting persons.

The compounds are *anyone*, *each one*, *everyone*, *no one*, *someone*. The compounds with the numeral *one* may be called *numerical*, the others *personal* compound indefinites.

1342. The numerical compounds with *any*, *every*, *no*, *some* and *each* can be conveniently grouped together, *none* being reserved for separate treatment. The compounds must naturally refer to some noun (*a*), or, in the case of persons, some noun or personal pronoun (*b*); this noun or pronoun takes the form of a prepositional adjunct.

a. Every one of her books seems to be a superb gesture of defiance. Times Lit. 13/4, '16.

If my reader asks why I do not send the statement I am going to make to some one of the special periodicals that deal with such subjects ...

Holmes, Over the Teacups p. 11.

Self-consciousness, aestheticism, a dislike for waste, a hatred of injustice; these — someone of these, when coupled with that desire natural to men throughout all ages to accomplish something — constituted the motive forces which enabled them to work their bellows.

Galsworthy, Fraternity ch. 13.

It opened to them new worlds, and every one of them glorious. Kipling, *Light that Failed.*

No one of Mr. Hardy's novels contains more of the facts of his own life than *A Laodicean.*

(Poutsma p. 1254).

b. All the servants were old in their places, and were told by some one of the family¹⁾ or gathered from the unheeded conversation carried on before them, everything that affected master or mistress or either of the young gentlemen. Any one of them could have told Molly that the grievance which lay at the root of everything, was the amount of the bills run by Osborne at Cambridge. Gaskell, *Wives I ch. 17.*

Every one of us is conscious that his acts are produced by his will. Vinogradoff, p. 17.

She was sent home in the carriage, loaded with true thanks from every one of the family.

Gaskell, *Wives I ch. 18.*

The names are familiar to each one of us; the realities are familiar only to the comparatively limited number whom they specially affect. Escott, *England I p. 11.*

So true it is, as I think I may have observed before, that there is something in this wonderful place which sooner or later touches the right chord in each one of us. Barbara p. 94.

No one of the Norman kings, among whom we will include Stephen, was a great legislator.

Maitland, *Const. Hist. p. 9.*

Suppose that in 1725 Voltaire had at the instigation of an English lord been treated in London as he was treated in Paris . . . No one of Voltaire's enemies would, if he²⁾ had been injured in England, have been able to escape from responsibility on the plea of acting in an official character or in obedience to his official superior.

Dicey, *Law of the Constitution Lect. VI p. 224.*

1) Here *one* refers to a noun like *member*, which is sufficiently suggested by the word *family*.

2) i. e. Voltaire.

1343. The personal compound pronouns are illustrated in the following sentences. They may denote persons in general (*a*) or the members of a more or less definite group (*b*). As personal pronouns they can take the genitive suffix.

a. Anyone who does not reckon for this will make a very serious miscalculation. Times Lit. 25/1, '18.

Those familiar words are in the mouth of every one.
Jowett, Plato.

Molly's father was not at home when she returned; and there was no one to give her a welcome.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 19.

Because he was old and deaf, he spoke to no one; and no one spoke to him. Galsworthy, Caravan I p. 3.

Someone told me you had left at 4 P. M.

The subject is so complicated that it is impossible to be right unless the proofs of each section are criticised by someone who knows the history and customs of the school in question. Pilot 28/9, 1901.

It's all very well to say it's no affair of anyone's but you'll find it is, Bryan. Galsworthy, Beyond (T.) p. 235.

b. The rest were busy loading the spare muskets, and every one with a red face.

Stevenson, Treasure Island.

Let each one try to conceive for himself the intensity of such a moment, to such a nature! Let each one try to realise the thoughts which followed each other in hot haste through his brain¹⁾.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 15.

These two in silence certainly understood each one something in the other that was hidden from the gaze of the world. Hichens, Way of the World ch. 4.

Molly wished that she had acceded to her father's proposal, and gone home with him. No one²⁾ seemed to want her. Gaskell, Wives I ch. 18.

1) The writer is addressing her readers.

2) i.e. no one of those in the house.

Every one one knew was going.

Rose Macaulay, Potterism I ch. 3 § 2 p. 25.

Compounds in -body and -one **1344.** The compounds in *-body* denote persons, those in *-one* can denote them.

The difference between the two groups of personal compound pronouns is the natural consequence of their origin: those in *-body* do not refer to a numerically defined group, which the compounds with *-one* may do. This explains why the compounds in *-one* are invariably used when there is an adjunct with a noun or pronoun to define it (*everyone of them*, *everyone of the Kings*). It is also easy to understand that *each*, which always refers to a numerically definite group, does not form a compound with *-body*.

None **1345.** Like the numerical compounds in *-one*, *none* is used with a prepositional adjunct, referring to things (a) as well as to persons (b). In the first function *none* is much more usual than *no one*. *None* is oftener taken in a plural than in a singular meaning.

a. The men and women which¹⁾ fall under the lash of Mr. Galsworthy's satire have none of the characteristics of the Pharisee. Masterman, Condition of England ch. 2.

b. None of the great men who have held his post before him, has spoken to our hearts or expounded our ideals with more force or more truth.

Times W. 18/5, '17.

I seemed the victim of my own amiable qualities rather than of those human weaknesses from which none of us are free. White, Mr. John Strood ch. 8.

He had sat up all night with the sow who was a clumsy mother, to make sure that she overlay none of her farrow. Freeman, Joseph ch. 6 p. 38.

1) Sic.

1346. *None* with a prepositional adjunct may refer to singular nouns.

I [must say I always thought there was none of that nonsense about you. Hobbes, Some Emotions II ch. 2.

War work has a sort of glamour about it, but working in peace time has none of that glamour.

Times W. 23/2, '17.

None of your New Zealand frozen honey for us, my boy! Punch 11/8, '15.

It causes a splendid excitement in that cabman, who gets as high as he can, to miss none of it¹⁾.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 1 p. 5.

1347. *None* is also used as a personal pronoun, like the compounds in *-one*, but here too, unlike these compounds, *none* is oftener taken in a plural (*a*) than in a singular (*b*) sense. Sometimes the number is doubtful (*c*).

a. The contagion had become so general that there were none who could work at it.

He evidently thinks that the things done in Serbia by Englishwomen were things which none but Englishwomen could have done. Times Lit. 5/1, '17.

b. None but a woman could have written Cranford.
Rhys in Preface to Cranford (Everyman).

c. The question startled Elisabeth. None²⁾ had ever asked her that before.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 3 p. 16.

1348. Unlike the compounds with *one* we also find *none* to refer to a noun, whether denoting persons or not, that is mentioned in the same or in a preceding sentence. In this case *none* has a function resembling that of a

1) viz. of the fight.

2) Probably the singular number is intended.

negative anaphoric *one* (1276), but it differs from *one* in referring not only to class-nouns (*a*) but also to other nouns (*b*). *None* may be singular in meaning or plural. It may be looked upon as the independent form corresponding to the attributive *no*; see 1242.

a. Among the many institutions in England none is more exposed to the barbs of the critic than the public schools. Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

Sounds there were none, save the barking of a dog at some out-lying farm.

Charles Trevail was, in fact, the nephew of the man known as 'Iron' Mortimore, and other near relative the miser had none. Phillipotts, Beacon I ch. 4 p. 24.

He had unconsciously been waiting for that word, than which none was more like a red rag to him.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 19.

b. If Hazlitt saw no wit in talking and walking, I see less than none in talking and driving. Eliz. in Rügen.

The Duke reserves to himself the right of sanctioning or rejecting the idea; but direct communication between the Duke and his agents, or the Duke and his tenants, there is none. Escott, England I p. 58.

1349. This anaphoric use of *none* leads to the adverbial. Thus in a sentence like *Her own position upon a sharp point of rock was none too secure* (Vachell, Quinneys') it would seem possible to treat *none* as the nominal predicate, with *too secure* as an attributive adjunct. But it is necessary, in accordance with the linguistic sense of the modern Englishman, to look upon *none* as an adverb-adjunct qualifying the predicative *too secure*. This last interpretation is also the correct one in the following quotations.

Holmes's "Bread and the Newspaper" reads to-day as if it were none of yesterday's fashioning.

Athen. 24/7, 15.

Slowly and with great difficulty, for his understanding was none of the clearest, she explained to him what was required.

"None of your key-holes for me, sonny," he said.
Stevenson, Treasure Island.

Village there was none, properly speaking.
Trollope, Framley ch. 2 p. 10.

1350. *None* is generally distinctly adverbial when it qualifies an adjective or adverb preceded by *too*, *so*, or a comparative with *the*. Compare the similar use of *any*.

"We must try to find that out." And Sally sets herself to the task. But it's none so easy.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 30 p. 323.

To my mind they look none the worse for their nudity.
The evening passed none too gaily.

Patterson, Compton p. 131.

She was none too soon. Eng. Rev. March 1914, p. 541.

That is all, or nearly all, that we know of the life of one who has added so greatly to our store of quiet and perfectly native humour — a commodity none too superfluous in our great literature.

Rhys, Introd. to Cranford (Everyman) p. XII.

1351. *None* is used attributively, in literary English, as an emphatic *no*. It is exclusively found before vowels; compare the similar use of *mine* and *thine*.

Even among the Jews, with their extreme respect for sacred books, the written word was made of none account by the tradition of exposition.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 120.

With more than one of them navies are a new toy, and, for this reason, if for none other, they are not likely to put them on the shelf.

Pilot 21/3, 1903.

Compounds in -thing **1352.** The compounds *anything*, *every-thing*, *something*, and *nothing* are used in a neuter sense.

With a respite in view, he was ready to agree to anything. Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 3.

Parks shall bring you everything and anything you want. Gaskell, Wives III p. 254.

I remember something was said about it, but I cannot remember what.

"Why can't you leave me alone?" he said. "You're always worrying —" A slow flush mounted into Stephen's cheeks but he said nothing.

"Well, why don't you say something? Nothing to say?" Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 8 § 2 p. 226.

... pictures of ... the kindly, empty faces of the Royal Family appeared and reappeared, visiting this, opening that, getting married, getting offspring, lying in state, doing everything but anything¹⁾, a wonderful, goodmeaning, impenetrable race apart. Wells, Tono-Bungay ch. 2.

The whole would be like multiplying nothing by nothing — the result would still be nothing.

When a compound in *-thing* is followed by an adjective we can substitute the construction with each of its elements as an independent word; *thing* in this case is the pronominal word of 1338.

... and, as though his strength were a match for the ruthless forces of nature, he had an insane impulse to do some violent thing.

Maugham, Trembling of a Leaf (T.) ch. 2 p. 16.

The two constructions are not quite identical; for *some violent thing* individualizes, *something violent* is more abstract or vague.

Note the following use of *something*.

He said, "what is it?" and they told him it was Margerison, his arm or his shoulder or something, and he didn't want to be moved.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 1 p. 3.

If I hadn't I should have had to go into a dye shop, or be a weaver or something. ib. ch. 3 p. 37.

1) For this emphatic sense, see 1219.

1353. When *something* is followed by a noun with *of* it is often used as an adjunct of the following word, which is always either an adjective or a noun with an adjectival function (frequently a predicative noun). See 1464 on *of*-adjuncts.

He is generous, philanthropic, and probably something of an autocrat. Escott, England I p. 77.

The lady was something of a celebrity.

Hope, Zenda ch. 2.

He liked to hear of their births, marriages, and deaths, and had something of a royal memory for faces.

Gaskell, Wives III p. 124.

1354. The *thing*-compounds are sometimes used adverbially; *nothing* chiefly in the combination *nothing much*, and, in literary English, *nothing loth*, *nothing daunted*. See also 1357.

The two girls were certainly anything rather than ordinary¹⁾. Hichens, Way of Ambition ch. 7.

In certain instances . . . something very like judicial powers have²⁾ been given to officials closely connected with the Government.

Dicey, Law of the Const. 8th ed. p. XLIV.

Michael had nothing much beyond a moral pact with the college authorities to make him covet a good class. Sinister Street p. 795.

On the whole, however, I had nothing much to complain of except my poverty. Gissing, Ryecroft X.

"What have you done this vac?" they asked him.

"Nothing very much," he said. Sinister Street p. 732.

"Good Gum," Edwy exclaimed with contempt. "We can't race anything with this load, can we?"

Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 7 p. 182.

1) In this sentence *anything* might just as well be considered as the predicative noun with the following words as an adjunct. The sentence, like the third and fourth, shows how the adverbial function arose.

2) The plural verb proves that *something* is not taken in its function of a noun but that it is used here as an adverb qualifying *judicial*.

I had now been in the United States of America something like five years.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 17 p. 134.

Clare was quite extraordinary — I have never seen her anything like it —

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. I § 3 p. 312.

1355. The adverbial use of *anything* is frequent in the semi-compound *anything but*. It is equivalent in meaning to *far from*; compare *all but* (1217).

As time went on, however, he became anything but proud of his juvenile productions as a dramatist.

Ward, Dickens ch. 2.

Well, I can't show you how she looked because I should simply look ridiculous, and I assure you she looked anything but ridiculous.

Chapin, New Morality, Brit. Pl. p. 551.

The combination *anything but* is not always a semi-compound. In the following quotations the two words have retained their independent meanings.

Nor does there appear to be the slightest reason for supposing that this period of his life was anything but happy.

Ward, Dickens ch. 1.

But my experience has shown me unmistakably that, even with advanced pupils, it is not safe to read an author without translating him first, if anything but a superficial knowledge is aimed at. Mod. Lang. Teaching IV, 45.

1356. The compounds in *-body* and *-thing* are essentially pronouns. This explains the absence of articles and of a plural form, also the post-position of attributive adjectives (*somebody nice*, *something nice*: see *Word-order* in vol. 3).

But these compounds are sometimes used as class-nouns, with a pronoun or article as a qualifier before them, or in the plural form.

With a young nobody for his comrade.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 8.

They are nobodies.

You should have seen some of the women at the Covent Garden fancy dress ball — the charity ball for indigent somebodies — I forget the exact Cause.

Phillpotts, Bronze Venus ch. 1.

One Sunday afternoon about that time I was sitting at my writing-desk when a something went by the window.

Wells, Country p. 18.

It was not in Stanley to appreciate the peculiar flavour of the Moretons, that something which, in spite of their *naïveté* and narrowness, had really been rather fine.

Galsworthy, Freelands ch. 4.

You see the idea of a something that could not be told was necessarily foreign to a mind some somethings could not be told to.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 24 p. 247.

1357. In literary English there is also a noun-pronoun *somewhat* (*a*). It is chiefly used when followed by a noun with *of* (*b*), and as an adverb of degree (*c*); both these uses are really adverbial.

a. ... to appreciate the restful beauty of our quiet country scenery, and to learn somewhat of its varied interests.

Athen. 24/7, '15.

b. This little spirt of temper was somewhat of a relief to Mr. Utterson.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 19.

He was also somewhat of a time-server.

Freeman, Norman Conquest (NED. s.v. *somewhat*).

c. (He has) had free scope to use his gift as a story-teller by indulging in a somewhat detailed narrative.

Athen. 19/1, 1907.

I was somewhat surprised.

Jerome, Three Men in a Boat ch. 6.

The simple *what* in this compound is the indefinite pronoun *what*, now used only in the traditional phrase *I'll tell you what*.

1358. It may be convenient to mention here the pronom-

inal *naught*, *nought* 'nothing' and *aught* 'anything', although they are compounds only in their origin. The words are exclusively literary.

Unfaith in aught is want of faith in all. Tennyson.

It was not the Reichstag which gave substance to the unity of Germany, nor did the Roman unity owe aught to parliamentary institutions.

Pollard, Evolution of Parliament p. 361.

Naught (*nought*) is also used in English as an ordinary noun (with a pronoun or article) to denote the cipher 0 in arithmetic.

Compounds in -how, -where, -way **1359.** English has no simple indefinite pronominal adverbs, but *any*, *every*, *some*, and *no* form adverbs with *how*, *where*, less often with *-way*: *somewhat*, *somewhere*, *anyhow*, *anywhere*, etc.; also *elsewhere*. We may include *otherwise*; see 1329.

He does his work anyhow.

I will go with you anywhere.

Virginie always tied up her face on the smallest provocation, though to what end the children had never discovered. But anyhow, she was sure to be out of temper when she did so.

Montgomery, Misunderstood ch. 9.

It was difficult somehow to begin.

Sinister Street, p. 846.

Papa, do let me have one ride with you! Please do. I am sure we can manage it somehow.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 320.

I forget how Mrs. Nightingale came into the conversation, but she did, somehow.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 7 p. 59.

... leaving Mrs. Aiken's hundred a year, which her aunt Priscilla allowed her, to pay the rent and so on, with a good margin for cabs and such-like. Anyhow, as the lady of the house helped *with* the house, the

Aikens managed, somehow. Or perhaps it should be said that, somehow, the Aikens managed anyhow. Mrs. Verity, their landlady, had her opinion about this.

id. *A Likely Story* ch. 1 p. 10 f.

There's something wrong somewhere. Anyway, nothing will ever induce me to believe that.

Mackenzie, *Sylvia and Michael* p. 29.

The following compounds are not current English but to be looked upon as 'experiments'.

It was somewhen long ago at Limpsfield.

Wells, *Joan and Peter* ch. 13 § 8 p. 604.

... while¹⁾ away over there the great Alpine peaks are white against the blue, and elsewhere the music of a hundred seas mixes with their thunder on a thousand shores. de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 20 p. 190.

NOUNS WITHOUT ARTICLES

1360. The articles have been classed among the pronouns. This needs no further defence; but it should not make us neglect the fact that the articles occupy a peculiar position among the pronouns: they may be classed with the attributive pronouns, but differ from them in that they generally express no meaning at all. This causes the articles to be of great syntactic importance. Conversely, the fact that nouns can take the articles in English makes the absence of the articles before a noun a matter of syntactic moment. It seems most convenient to deal with the use of nouns without any article now that the functions of the two articles have been treated.

1361. The use of nouns without an article inevitably leads us to compare the noun with an article. In some

1) The conjunction.

cases we naturally compare the plain noun with one accompanied by the definite article, in other cases with a noun with the indefinite article. However absurd it may seem, therefore, from a logical point of view, it will be instructive if we distinguish two groups of cases and treat the plain noun as contrasted with:

- (1) the noun with the definite article;
- (2) the noun with the indefinite article.

We shall briefly indicate this by speaking of the Absence of the Definite, resp. Indefinite, Article.

Absence of the Definite Article

1361. The use of the plain noun must be compared with the use of the definite article in its functions of:

- (1) a demonstrative,
- (2) a defining,
- (3) a classifying article.

We shall find that the absence of the article may be due to the meaning of the noun, but also to its syntactic character.

1362. In contrast to the cases of 1170 (*the good Arbuthnot*) no article is used in traditional (permanent) groups of an adjective with the proper name of a person.

In little Charles this teacher took much interest.

Forster-Gissing.

'Yes,' said Big Toomai, his driver, the son of Black Toomai, who had taken him to Abyssinia.

Kipling, Jungle-Book.

There was a time, sir, when I was butler to old Sir Jabez Gilchrist, this young gentleman's father.

Poor Mrs. Hamley could hardly do without Molly; she quite looked upon her as a daughter.

Gaskell, Wives II p. 12.

But it is time for Edwin and Hilda to come up in the world. And that they do. Edwin's business grows. Ambitious Hilda makes something as near a country gentleman of him as he is capable of becoming.

Times Lit. 20/11, '16.

She sent her mind to Aunt Charlotte, disreputable Aunt Charlotte, deplorable Aunt Charlotte, who quarrelled with the world and with whom the world quarrelled.

Pett Ridge, Garland ch. 8.

The permanence of the group naturally lessens, and often excludes, the affective element which is the reason for the article in the cases referred to.

1363. It has been shown, in 1173, that the article is used with proper names as well as class-nouns when they are accompanied by a defining adjunct. In apparent contradiction to this we find the noun used without an article in a number of cases although there is an *of*-adjunct that might seem to define it.

Mr. William Freeland, who a week ago was laid to rest in a Glasgow cemetery, *in presence of* a large gathering representative of art and journalism.

Academy 7/11, 1903.

In face of common dangers and common demands they have tended more and more to make common cause.

Edinb. Rev., Oct. 1903.

There remain other Parliamentary Commissions *for purpose of* investigation strictly judicial in their character and their attributes.

Courtney, Constitution.

In place of dry details or pious discourses the reader will here meet with some of the masterpieces of Icelandic literature.

Athenaeum 11/11, 1905.

This brings one *in sight of* certain general canons of criticism.

Leslie Stephen, G. Eliot.

After seeing the gannet every day for months one would be apt to think that this species is incapable of making a mistake and is *beyond reach of* accident.

Quoted by Athenaeum.

.... this pilgrims' Mecca should be acquired as a national possession before it is spoilt *beyond hope of redemption.* Athenaeum.

They had started from their headquarters *under cover of* darkness.

There was not an inch of room for Lottie and Kezia in the buggy. When Pat swung them *on top of* the luggage they wobbled.

I was feeling *on top of* my form.

Strand Mag. July 1925.

In all these cases the construction with the article (*in the presence of*, etc.) is also possible and perhaps equally current. The reason is that each element of the group has retained its independent meaning in the minds of many speakers. But there are outwardly identical cases when the group has so much unity that no article is ever used. This applies to *by reason of*, *by way of*, *in virtue of*, *in imitation of*, *in case of*, *in hopes of*, *by dint of*, etc. When the preposition has a form that is not used now, the origin of the group is matter of history: thus *because of* is not clearly felt to be connected with *cause* by a speaker of living English.

That soon tired me, and *by dint of* advertising I found a place in an office at Bath. Gissing, Odd Women ch. 3.

The second volume *in chronological order*, the third *in order of publication.* Pilot 9/4, 1904.

Also: prejudiced *in favour of* the Japanese, *in full possession of* all her faculties, *by way of* precaution, *in case of* an accident.

The two constructions may even come to express different, in some respects opposite, meanings. Thus, *in control of* means the opposite of *in the control of*, the former expressing what may be called the ing (*controlling*), the latter the participle (*controlled by*) of the same verb.

At present the Government is in control of the railroads.
Mildred Lambert, American Speech IV (June '29) p. 400f.

1364. It has been stated that nouns in apposition can take an article, which, though perhaps primarily defining, often seems to have an affective character (1177). Apart from this special reason appositive nouns do not take the article.

William III., King of England.

Mr. George B. McLellan, *son of* the famous general who almost got to Richmond — but not quite — in 1862.
Pilot.

The 'Dialectics' of Aristotle as rendered by the famous John Case, *author of* the 'Sphaera Civitatis', whose grim visage looks down upon the high table of St. John's College in Oxford to-day. Athenaeum.

We regret to announce the death of Mr. Alfred Webb of Dublin, *author of* the 'Compendium of Irish Biography', and many pamphlets and articles on Irish subjects. ib.

In the year 1892 Bleakridge, residential suburb of Bursley, was still most plainly divided into old and new.
Bennett, These Twain I ch. 1.

1365. The third group of cases to be dealt with consists of the nouns that do not take the classifying article, although they may take the defining or the demonstrative article in some cases.

The absence of the classifying article always depends upon the meaning of the noun; but this meaning may be due to the syntactic function of the word. We shall first treat of the cases when the absence of the article is due to the meaning of the noun independently of its use in the sentence.

1366. It follows from the very definition of the classifying article that abstract and material nouns as well as proper names do not take it.

Why is hope one of the cardinal virtues?

Times Lit. 4/1, '18.

Cleanliness is next to godliness.

Charity creates much of the misery it relieves, but does not relieve all the misery it creates.

Fact is usually less entertaining than fiction.

If war breaks out the Bulgarians will want all the help and sympathy they can get from Western Europe.

Pilot 26/9, 1903.

No other writer of antiquity has been more familiar to Christianity than Virgil.

They dared not even speak to one another, but sat, one in the bow, one in the stern, in silent patience, waiting for death.

Famine compelled the city of Paris to open its gates.

The scheme was adopted and on January 10, 1840, Penny Postage began.

Coal is found in many parts of England.

Black bread is never eaten in England.

Water is the best drink when one is really thirsty.

John, Holland, London, Snowdon, Vesuvius.

It is unnecessary to show by quotations that these nouns can take a defining article. But it may be instructive to give one example of the fact that a noun may take a possessive, a definite article, or be unaccompanied by any word of the kind according to the meaning intended, if it is one of those nouns that have been treated in 1196 ff.

I had no great difficulty in getting leave from my parents to go and see Ned, when they knew that Harry Webb's father had allowed him to go too, and on the understanding that it was at the desire of Ned's parents; but I found that it was not so easy to appease *my conscience* about the matter. I tried to make things easy by saying to myself that Ned's parents did want us to go. But *the conscience* is naturally sensitive in early

youth, . . . I tried to evade this clear demonstration, and tried to stop my ears to the voice of *conscience*, but it was in vain . . .

Sweet, Primer of Spoken English p. 52 f.

1367. The absence of the classifying article before plural class-nouns causes these to express a general sense.

Sixty years ago men still thought it wonderful that for a single penny a letter might be sent to a friend five hundred miles off.

The story is well told, and mountaineers will follow the straightforward narrative with interest throughout.

In the wilderness, meals, as a rule, are consumed rapidly and in silence. Vachell, Spragge p. 44.

Few teachers are born, good ones must be made.

Sat. Rev. 10/11, '17.

The troops turned out from their encampments, which have filled the parks with cities of white tents; detachments of police marched up, and the stands began to fill.

The trend of recent discussions concerning our instincts and our emotions is a good introduction to this topic.

Laird p. 26.

The use of the article in these sentences would seem to rob the nouns of their individual character, and to make them distinctly collective in meaning. See also 1179.

1368. A special case of 1367 is the noun forming an adjunct with *of* to a superlative or to a noun with a meaning equivalent to a superlative.

A monument in honour of the greatest of English poets.

If I am the chief of sinners, I am the chief of sufferers also. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll.

The heartiest of welcomes awaited us at the really humble cottage. Jerrold, Meredith.

In this construction, especially when the noun in the *of*-adjunct is in the singular, the article really qualifies the

noun in the *of*-adjunct. Thus the speaker of present-day English in such a case as *the politest of reception* takes *the* as qualifying *reception*, and *politest of* as an adjunct as well. See 1819 ff.

1369. It is often possible to use a plural class-noun in a general sense or in the sense of the class as a whole without great difference of meaning.

To the men at the end of the fifteenth century scarcely a year but brought another bit of received and recognized thinking to the scrap-heap. Mair, Eng. Lit.

Here we have the text with all allusions explained, and a translation. Dr. Rouse, Classical Rev.

But for the most reckless among the reckless, for the spendthrift among spendthrifts, for the gamester above all gamesters, and for a gay man outstripping the gay — by these characteristics did the world know Lord Mount Severn. Meredith.

In the last quotation the article is necessary before adjectives used as nouns denoting persons, because these are only used as such when the whole class is meant. Hence also the article in the following passage:

What Chambers of Commerce are for employers and capital, Trade Councils in some degree are for the unemployed and for labour.

1370. When a material noun or a plural class-noun is preceded by *most*, no article is used when the noun is taken in a general sense and we divide the persons or things into two classes (*most* and *others*).

Most people remember Sir George White only as the brave defender of Ladysmith. Times Lit. 23/12, '15.

It may be useful to observe here that the noun takes *most of* when it is qualified by some pronoun or in another way (*a*), including a defining (*b*) or a classifying (*c*) article.

- a.* Most of my friends will join us.
 Most of that money was earned.
b. Most of the books he wrote are completely forgotten now.

Every man was supposed to have free choice to go with the General or to stay, but the officers of most of the old papal regiments used pressure to keep back those under their command. Trevelyan, Garibaldi.

1371. When there is no division into two classes, but a comparison of number or quantity, *the most* precedes the noun.

The right man for her is he who has the most money and the biggest position.

Hobbes, Some Emotions I ch. 4.

The use of the article seems to be nothing but a piece of literary affectation in the following case, which is not an isolated one in this author.

The most of Michael's friends had availed themselves of the right of seniority to move into more dignified rooms for their second year.

Mackenzie, Sinister Street p. 633.

1372. The stem of class-nouns is often found Collective Nouns without an article to express a collective sense.

Bogs and forests traversed by bad packroads made up the Lowlands, and the rest was precipitous hill.

Times Lit. 18/6, 1914.

Most of them (viz. the camps of the bronze age) are found enclosed by one or more concentric lines of ditch and palisade on isolated hills. Oman, Conquest p. 7.

From the canvas bag she poured a small heap of coin.
 Hardy, Madding Crowd.

Dick says I've a good deal of muscle for a boy that's only seven. Burnett, Fauntleroy.

They cross-examined the saints for their attestation of miracle and prophecy, but omitted to discover the secret of their life. Camb. Hist. of Eng. Lit. XII, 279.

Cocheforêt lies in a billowy land of oak and beech and chestnuts — a land of deep, leafy bottoms and hills clothed with forest. Weyman, Red Robe ch. 2.

1373. The stems of *man* and *woman* are also used without the article. The case may seem like the preceding one on a superficial view, but the meaning is not really collective, but rather abstract.

Woman has hitherto played but a small part in the industrial system of the North, and the process of substituting women for men in the factories has consequently been a slow one. Times Lit. 28/12, '17.

Instead of painting the outer man, he paints the soul in man. Bode p. 4.

Man cannot live by epigram alone, and plain prose has its uses. Walker, Lit. Vict. Era.

On woman's part in primitive agriculture Dr. Frazer sheds much welcome light. Athen. 27/7, '12.

The use of *man* and *woman* without an article is not only related to these words with the definite but also with the indefinite article. In the above quotations it would be possible to use the indefinite article in the third sentence (from Walker), but the meaning would be modified: *a man* would suggest a person as a specimen of the class; the same applies to the first of the following quotations. The plural can also express similar meanings, as will appear from the last sentence below.

A woman should not despise domestic duties.

Now study is knowledge co-ordinated by reflection, and as such it is peculiar to mankind; for the most fundamental difference between man and animals consists in a man's power of reflection.

Vinogradoff, Common Sense in Law p. 9.

The woman gives all to one, the man gives a little to many.

The man lives by ideas; the woman by sensations.
Waugh, Reticence in Lit. p. 13.

It is from this reflective element that men draw their immense superiority over animals. ib. p. 10.

1374. In a number of cases words that are usually class-nouns can be used in a meaning that causes them to approach the character of abstract nouns with the result that they take no article *in this special meaning*. The observation concerns three groups of nouns especially: names of meals, of places, and of time.

Names of Meals **1375.** Names of regular meals take no article, unless a definite occasion is referred to.

Dinner is on the table, Sir!

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 7.

After dinner they went out.

James, *Daisy Miller* p. 116.

"Poor fellow, of course he's tired," said Mrs. Carthew.
"A most disturbing experience. Come along. Dinner will do him good." *Sinister Street* p. 725.

At last déjeuner was served to her.

Belloc Lowndes, *Armour* ch. 3.

George likes coffee for breakfast, and tea for tea.

He sat down to the dinner that had been hoarding for him by the fire. Dickens, *Christmas Carol*.

"God sanctify this food to our use and us to His service for Christ's sake, Amen."

The breakfast proceeded in silence. Breakfast at eight, dinner at noon, tea at four, supper at eight: all the meals in this house occurred with absolute precision and sameness. Bennett, *Anna of the Five Towns* ch. 3.

Names of Places **1376.** Many class-nouns denoting places are used without an article¹⁾ when the use of the place is referred to, e.g., *school* when meaning 'a session of school', or 'the set time of attendance at school'.

1) In some cases the alternative is not an article but a possessive; see 1196 ff.

The construction is especially common in prepositional adjuncts.

About ten minutes before school Martin and Arthur arrived in the quadrangle.

School begins at half past eight.

Let a man walk for an hour before bed.

I shall go to him after church.

A barrister may be reprimanded by the judge if he misconducts himself in court.

I had been awake and hot and thirsty in the night, but in the morning bed felt comfortable.

Wells, *Country* p. 164.

I rose accordingly from table, got into a hansom, and drove straight to Jekyll's house.

Stevenson, *Dr. Jekyll* p. 91.

Lift the baggage up on my saddle, Hartmann, and I will carry her back to camp.

Buchanan, *That Winter Night* ch. 4.

... went to boarding-school.

Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 187.

The "Purveyor," of course, pointed out that, according to regulations, all soldiers should bring with them into hospital an adequate supply of clothing.

Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 134.

In hall the second-year men were not quite as rowdy as they used to be. Sinister Street p. 779.

School or the University¹⁾ produces a marked effect on the speech of a young man.

Greenough and Kittredge, *Words*.

The case has been already settled out of court.

Prison for lads should be the last, and not the first resort.

You used to do it nicely before you went to boarding-school. Vachell, *Quinneys'* p. 187.

¹⁾ The word *University* does not, like *school* or *college*, suggest a building, and takes the article, like other singular class-nouns.

He had no liking for bed this many a long year.
Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 16.

The article is always used according to the general rules when the building as such is referred to, in other words when the word is a genuine class-noun.

And now I pass as an ecclesiastic — for this chapter was to be ecclesiastical — as I passed daily for more than thirty years, from the church to the school.

Hole, Memories p. 174 f.

Nouns of Time 1377. Some class-nouns denoting a period of time (*term, day*) or a place (*hall*) or an idea not connected directly with time at all (*prayers*), when used to define time are used without an article (*a*). Frequently the noun is accompanied by *last* or *next* comparing the time with the present (*b*). The character of *last* and *next* is closely related to that of the pronouns.

a. Term drew to a close. Sinister Street p. 552.

Darkness had to a great extent arrived hereon (viz. on the heath), while day stood distinct in the sky¹⁾.
Hardy, Return of the Native I ch. 1.

The next day as Gordon was walking across the courts in break "the Bull" came up to him.

Waugh, Loom of Youth I ch. 6.

Clarke had been quiet nearly the whole of hall; there was obviously something up. ib. ch. 6.

The sensation he caused was highly gratifying. By prayers all his friends and most of his acquaintances knew of it. ib. III ch. 1.

b. To begin with, his father was an Archdeacon, and since he wore a shovel-hat and odd, black, wrinkled gaiters even when, as during last summer holidays, he climbed the hills in the Lake District...

Benson, Blaize ch. 4 p. 62.

1) The contrast *day: darkness* shows that the absence of the article is due to the abstract meaning of *day*.

1378. Names of seasons are also frequently used without an article (*a*), unless, of course, a defining or an anaphoric article is wanted (*b*).

a. Autumn begins on the 21st of September.

In winter we are indoors a great deal.

b. As the summer drew on she passed more of her time in the open air.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 56 (Poutsma II 548).

The autumn has been delightful; let us not grumble at the weather now.

1379. When nouns of time accompanied by *last* or *next* refer to the past time as the starting-point for the comparison, they naturally take the anaphoric article (*a*), although even in this case the plain noun is often used (*b*).

a. The next day at about half-past four in the afternoon a small but heavily moustached figure... emerged from St. Paul's Cathedral...

Wells, Christina Alberta's Father II ch. I § 9.

b. He remained that night at the house, but next day still remembered nothing.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 4 p. 33.

These facts came to light in the course of next day, the second of her stay in the house.

ib. ch. 4 p. 34. Also ib. ch. II p. 98.

Names of Diseases **1380.** Names of diseases may be looked upon as abstract nouns; they are often used without an article, at least a good many of them.

He soon succumbed to an attack of acute bronchitis.
N E D.

Indigestion is learnedly spoken of as dyspepsia.

Measles are in Jena, and also the whooping-cough.
Elizabeth, Frl. Schmidt ch. 20.

On wet Sundays, or whenever he had a touch of rheumatism, he used to read the three first chapters of Genesis.
Eliot, Bede ch. 18.

1381. The article is also absent before names of things that are single in their kind or that are thought of with special reference to one institution. Thus *Heaven*, *Hell*; *Parliament*, *Congress*, *Convocation* are often found without the article.

These nouns may be compared with those that take the unique article, from which they differ in that the noun does not easily, if at all, suggest a number of specimens of the same class. The absence of the article before *Fate*, *Chance*, *Fortune*, *Nature* may be due to their character of proper names; they may also be considered as abstract nouns.

Parliament was prorogued on the 24th.

Converted Adjectives **1382.** No article is used before adjectives converted into nouns to denote language or colour. The reason is clearly that their character is similar to that of the abstract and material nouns. The last quotation may be compared with *dressed in velvet*.

It is really necessary for you to learn German.

He translates articles from English into Dutch.

Mrs. B. was dressed in black.

The article is used in the expression *to translate a book from the Russian, English*¹⁾, etc.; and occasionally in other cases.

For these (viz. translations of the classics) a kind of precedent already existed in the shape of translations of Latin authors into the Italian. Edinb. Rev.

The word *Bible* came into English from the Greek through the Latin.

There are no words in English so unfixed and fluctuating as these late borrowings from the French.

Pearsall Smith, *The English Lang.* p. 37 (and oftener).

1) Shortening of *the Russian original*, etc.

Meaning dependent upon Syntactic Use **1383.** It has been stated in 1365 that the absence of the classifying article depends upon the meaning of the noun, but that this meaning is not always independent of its syntactic position. We shall now treat of these cases: (1) Vocatives; (2) Syntactic Groups; (3) Contrasts.

Vocatives **1384.** In addressing persons both the stem form and the plural are used without an article. The close connection with proper names need not be demonstrated.

Come along, pet.
Be quiet, boys.
I'm coming, mother.

1385. It is a natural result of the frequent vocative use of names of relationship and of some nouns denoting a trade or profession that they come to be completely treated as proper names and to take no article in non-vocative use.

Such nouns are *father*, *mother*, *aunt*, *uncle*, etc.; also *nurse*, *cook*.

Father told me to cash this cheque.
Nurse will take you out for a walk.
Cook had gone out to do some marketing.
Baring-Gould in Swaen I p. 11.

A similar explanation will account for the frequent absence of the article before such words as *prisoner*, *witness*, *defendant*. This is naturally found in technical (i. c. legal) language.

In a bitter voice prisoner continued: If I go to penal servitude what shall I do when I come out of prison?

Syntactic Groups 1386. Proper names of countries and places with a descriptive adjective or attributive noun take no article. See 1170 on the affective article before similar groups; and the names of countries with the classifying article (*the new China*: 1187).

In old Japan one of the quaintest holidays was that of the 8th of December. *Athenaeum* 23/5, 1908.

No writer of the time gives us a more vivid picture of Elizabethan London. Dobson, *Vignettes* p. 45.

Correspondence continues to reach us on the subject of *pension* terms on the Continent, not only in Lovely Lucerne, but also in Alluring Avignon, Dusky Dinard, Tollollish Trouville¹⁾, Cheap Chamounix, and Godly Grindelwald.

If the ingenious foreigner found himself in some village of manufacturing Lancashire, he would be otherwise impressed.

Here I am upon a spur of the Cotswolds, and before me spreads the wide vale of Evesham, with its ripening crops, its fruiting orchards, watered by sacred Avon.

Also in: feudal Europe, medieval England, Early Egypt, European Russia, Mohammedan India, etc.

1) The meaning of tollollish is not generally known. The word is not registered in the NED. The Dialect Dict. explains *tol-lol* as 'intoxicated'.

Farmer and Henley, Dictionary of Slang, explain *toll-loll* (or *toll-lollish*) as 'tolerable, pretty good, nothing to grumble at.' Compare also:

"Sir", he said, "the picture of your home is very pleasant, and I presume that plenty abounds there."

"Well, you know, pretty toll-loll for that. With twelve o' them, Mr. Crawley, I needn't tell you they are not going to have castles and parks of their own, unless they can get 'em off their own bats."

Trollope, *Last Chron. of Barset* ch. 32 p. 280.

Attaché to the Naples embassy, sounds tol-lol.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 47.

Noun and Proper Name **1387.** No article is used before familiar titles and names expressing relationship, followed by the proper name of a person.

King Edward, Queen Victoria, Cardinal Newman, Father¹⁾ Black, Mr. Jones, Miss Jones, Messrs. Watson & Co.²⁾, Professor Jones, Count Bismarck, Count Andrassy, Count Stanislas, Earl Grey, Sir Walter Scott, Monsieur Paul Cambon.

Uncle John, Aunt Mary, Cousin Jack, etc.

Count Hayashi, whose death we announced briefly in our late editions last week, was the first Japanese Ambassador to Great Britain. Times W. 18/7, '13.

The deaths are reported of the Archduke Rainer, Señor Moret, Mr. Eirikr Magnússon, Mr. Auguste van Biene, Canon W. B. Grenside, Mr. Cyril Dodd, K. C. and others. ib. 31/1, '13.

Herr Denhof has completed arrangements for another extensive tour in the North. Athenaeum 2/8, '13.

Four Beethoven concerts under the direction of Heer Mengelberg. ib.

The reason why names of titles deviate from the usual treatment of nouns before proper names (1181) is evident. These titles take no classifying article because they are subordinated to the following noun, not only in meaning, but frequently also in form. In a group like *the lad Robert* the two nouns have even stress, in *Mr. Roberts* the title is weak-stressed. For this reason, too, it is the

1) Title of a Roman Catholic, or English Catholic, priest, usually a member of a religious community.

2) The article is necessary in such a case as the following: ... in the following proportions, namely 19—40ths to each of the Messrs. Ash, and 2—40ths to Mr. Seed.

In the following quotation we probably have the demonstrative *the* before *Messrs.*: Rhodes's friend Paulins, the famous railway contractor, and the Messrs. Erlanger, bankers of this city, came to the rescue.

Times W. 11/5, '17.

familiar titles (whether English or foreign) only that take no article. The title may be so completely subordinated to the following noun that its nominal character is lost; thus *saint* in *St. Mary*, etc. is probably taken for an adjective by modern English speakers. See the sections on *Attributive Adjuncts* in the chapters on *Sentence-Structure* and on *Order of Words*.

1388. Names of trades or professions are often used without the article in the same case.

A little later, strolling across the rooms toward them alone, came Judge Morris.

Allen, Mettle of the Pasture.

Superintendent Taylor and Sergeant Fowler motored to Scotland Yard. Daily Mail.

Farmer Blaize, Constable Dempsey, Policeman Turner, Private Mulvaney, General Botha, Admiral Beresford.

Note that a noun is often the name of a profession, or calling, as well as a title, e.g. *constable*, *private*, *sergeant general*, *admiral*.

1389. Unfamiliar titles retain their independent meaning (and stress) and require the article. Before *emperor* we sometimes find no article used in present-day English because it has become more and more familiar. But this use is still limited to contemporary and well-known sovereigns; the article is always used in referring to older times.

The Regent Murray.

They were finally defeated disastrously and the consul Regulus surrendered. Goodspeed, Ancient World.

Emperor William loses no opportunity of magnifying his office. Everyman 25/19, '12.

On the death of Emperor Mutsuhito, there closed, as Mr. Asquith said, "the most memorable reign in modern history." Times W. 3/1, '13.

Before *Kaiser* with the proper name the article was usual down to recent times, but the proper name was seldom added (*Hang the Kaiser*: Lloyd George's Election cry in 1918). Before some titles, such as *Sultan*, *Archduke* usage is not uniform.

The Kaiser Wilhelm II. is so interesting and able a monarch that we are concerned to know him as well as possible.
Pilot, 1902.

In rather official English we often find the article used before familiar (as well as unfamiliar) titles.

The Lady Emily; the Princess Alice; the Countess Beauchamp.

The Earl Carrington, K. G., G. C. M. G., has tendered, and the King has been pleased to accept, his resignation of the office of Lord Privy Seal. The King has been pleased to approve the appointment of the Marquis of Crewe, K. G., to be Lord Privy Seal, in the place of Lord Carrington. The King has been pleased to approve the appointment of the Right Hon. Thomas McKinnon Wood to be Secretary for Scotland, in the place of the Lord Pentland.

The King has been pleased to confer the dignity of a marquisate of the United Kingdom upon the Earl Carrington, K. G., G. C. M. G. Daily News 14/2, '12.

1390. The case of geographical names without the article (*Cape Lizard*, *Lake Baikal*, etc.: see 1184) is quite the same as that of title and proper name. Whereas *county* in English names takes the article and *of* (*the county of Cheshire*), Irish counties are used without: *County Mayo*.

1391. In enumerations when nouns are closely connected, by contrast or in a similar way, the stems may be used without an article.

Her disorder had become a feverish cold, caught,

doubtless, between open window and door whilst the bedroom was being aired for breakfast.

Gissing, *Odd Women* ch. 3.

North of Humber and Trent, west of Severn and Exe, Celto-Iberian tribalism survived in its more primitive form.

Trevelyan, *Hist. of England* p. 21.

He follows the history of early dramatic efforts in Church, University, School, Court; in the pageants of the cities, and the songs and representations of the people.

Athenaeum 2/11, '12.

Within (i. e. within the church) it was cool and dark; it was furnished sparingly with seat and screen, and held monuments of old knights and ladies.

Benson, *Thread of Gold* p. 31.

Alike in Nicias and in Napoleon the mingled languor and impatience of disease distorted the imagination and rendered will and judgment unsure.

Athenaeum 14/9, '12.

But a careless student might well be forgiven for supposing that Voltaire's quarrel was, not with the religious establishment in France, but with religion in any shape whatever. He hated Jansenist as much as Jesuit.

Millar, *Mid-eighteenth Cent.* p. 21.

We ourselves have seen fox, deer, and hare deliberately chased by the same pack on the same day, and never had better fun.

Times Lit. 14/9, '16.

Soldiers of the cross there were, numerous, brave, and noble-spirited as ever; but imperfectly armed, overwhelmed with confusion, without discipline, without leader, without organisation.

Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 393 f.

For the same reason the article is absent in many prepositional groups, such as *from beginning to end*, *from cover to cover*, *from North to South*, etc.

1392. Converted adjectives are also found without the article in enumerations and contrasts.

French and Germans may both remain quite assured that we shall not abandon our efforts.

Times W.

Through thick and thin. From grave to gay.
Many of these cases are traditional.

Traditional 1393. It has been stated that class-nouns denoting a building with an attributive proper name regularly take the classifying article: 1182. But in some traditional names of buildings the noun without an article continues to be used. There is even stress in these groups.

Buckingham Palace, Windsor Castle, Plymouth Harbour, Kingstreet¹⁾, Edgware Road, Leicester Square, Waterloo Bridge, Hyde Park, Rheims Cathedral, Banbury Cross.

He was duly at Transham station in time for the London train. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 25.

... the clouds over Bredon Hill.

Temple Thurston, *Antagonists* I ch. 11 p. 85.

The absence of the article prevents the proper name being taken for an attributive noun. Thus *Oxford Street* is in London, like *Victoria Station*. But *the Moscow Station* in the following sentence immediately suggests that it is in *Moscow*.

Then she arrives at the Moscow station from St. Petersburg. M. Arnold, *Essays* II (quoted in Palmer's *Bulletin*, May 1929).

1394. Sometimes the article is used, though contrary to the natural form of spoken English, to give dignity to the sentence; see 1389.

Viscount Haldane presided last evening at a dinner at the Savoy Hotel organized in aid of the building and endowment fund of Bedford College for women.... Queen Alexandra sent the following telegram:.... in aid of the building fund of the Bedford College for women. Daily News 24/II, 1911.

1) Note the spelling in one word.

The cab entered the Euston Road.

Galsworthy, *Fraternity*.

Having graduated very highly at the London University.

ib.

1395. A verb may form such a close group with what is apparently its object that the two elements are really one; see 466. In such cases the noun frequently has no article, although it would take the defining or classifying article if each element had its independent meaning (*a*). We also find nouns without a qualifying adjunct in cases when the alternative would be a noun with a possessive pronoun (*b*).

a. In his first nine years of work we have record of but ten stories. Edinb. Rev.

b. At length I saw a lady within call.
Tennyson (Poutsma p. 811).

The Prince of Tarentum pays court to him.
Marj. Bowen. ib.

All this must be borne in mind...

Coulton, Med. Village ch. 7 p. 74.

To break faith, to join (shake) hands, to lose heart,
to keep house, to keep word.

Absence of the Indefinite Article

1396. The absence of the indefinite article can only be thought of with reference to class-nouns. This is one point distinguishing it from the absence of the definite article; another point is that the absence of the indefinite article is always due to the function of the noun in the sentence. It is chiefly in a predicative function that the plain noun is used, both as a nominal predicate and as a predicative adjunct to the object. The cause is evidently that the predicative noun, apart from sentences expressing

identity, is usually strongly adjectival, denoting a quality rather than a substance. Thus, there is little difference between *He is an Englishman* and *He is English*. See *Sentence-Structure* in volume 3.

1397. The adjectival character of predicative nouns is prominent when qualities of the same persons are contrasted. This explains why we very frequently find the plain noun in such cases, whether as a nominal predicate (*a*), or in adjuncts with *as* (*b*).

a. That the novelist is poet also is manifested in almost everything which he has written.

Jerrold, Meredith p. 41.

Mr. Boyd is Irishman first, critic next.

Times Lit. 21/6, '18.

Upon all principles I had to prefer seeing Graham more anxious to be husband to Barbara than curator to Pavis Court. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 25.

b. Mr. Andrew Lang makes a study of Dumas as writer and as man. Pilot 18/7, 1903.

As courtier, office-holder, legislator, soldier, diplomatist, burgher of London, Chaucer came into contact with every sort of person worth knowing, from king to apprentice. Greenough and Kittredge, Words p. 90.

He has played many parts. He has thrown himself into all with the full force of his fine intelligence and the vigour of his strong will. He has been soldier and sailor; he has been statesman and diplomatist; he has planned electioneering campaigns and Parliamentary combinations. His oratory has been as wide of range as it has been picturesque in form and eloquent in delivery. He has appeared as social reformer and as moralist, as playwright and as artist. No man, however vast and however varied may be his gifts, can fill so many characters with entire success. Times W.

The first volume shows us Story more as glamourised lover of Italy than as artist. Pilot 9/1, 1904.

It is necessary to know something of the life and career of Alexander I. both as man and as ruler.

Academy 9/4, 1904.

The poet is not directly concerned with the objective appearances of existence. As artist, he may use them for his medium; he often does but, as prophet, he rises above and beyond them. Oxf. and Camb. Rev. no. 5.

1398. This explains why the article is often absent in the headings of essays.

Burns as Musician. Mr. Meredith as Poet. Lord Salisbury as Journalist. Bagehot as Literary Critic.

And in those same essays the article is used when the writer does not think of a contrasting quality, but compares the subject of his essay with other persons.

The author makes it plain that Burns's attainments as a practical musician were far greater than has been commonly supposed. Academy 17/10, 1903.

Overshadowed by his pre-eminent merits as a novelist, Mr. George Meredith's poetry is to many of the public a hidden thing. ib. 3/10, 1903.

Lord Salisbury as Quarterly Reviewer scarce comes within this hurried purview of Lord Salisbury as a journalist. ib. 29/8, 1903.

We wish to look upon him (*viz.* Bagehot) only as a critic of literature. Times Lit. 29/7, 15.

1399. Of course, the contrast may be present in the mind of the speaker without being expressed in so many words.

Towards Jeremy Taylor as theologian and bishop, Mr. Gosse is perhaps scarcely so genial and sympathetic (contrast: as writer). Pilot 14/5, 1904.

My knowledge of him as preacher and reader is of a rather remote past (contrast: as writer, essayist). ib.

1400. It is in complete agreement with the use of the plain noun in contrasts that we almost invariably find it when a noun is connected with its subject by *to turn*, for in such sentences *to turn* means *to change from one thing to another* (*a*). We similarly find the plain noun with some other copulas (*b*).

a. You don't mean to say you've turned socialist?
Sweet, Spoken English p. 88.

In 1222 we hear of a deacon being burned — he had turned Jew for the love of a Jewess.

Maitland, Const. Hist. p. 509.

Clara, born long after the other children, was a nervous, over-sensitive child, but handy and home-loving, she turned nurse at eleven, and nursed a brother through a two years' illness. Times Lit. 27/11, '16.

b. In other words he (viz. Milton) commenced pamphleteer. Birrell, Essay on Milton p. 139.

Were I ever to commence author I should take at once to my bed; it is the only place where my ideas run at all freely. Barbara, p. 21.

When George Herbert left off courtier and took orders, he burnt his earlier love-poetry. Mair, Eng. Lit. p. 84.

1401. We occasionally find the noun with an article when there seems to be a contrast in the sense discussed here. But it must be remembered that the comparison of the person with other people of the same class may be foremost in the writer's mind, as explained in 1398; in such a case the article would be required (*a*). And it may also occur, though rarely, that *turn* is taken to mean *to become* simply, so that the contrast between the two qualities recedes into the background, and consequently the article is used (*b*). The article is probably invariably used when the noun is accompanied by an attributive adjective, because the meaning *to become* is in that case almost inevitable (*c*).

a. (The book) seemed to hold promise that he might as a playwright advance as he had as a novelist.

Marriott, Brit. Pl. p. 585.

M. Olivier, as Prime Minister and subsequently as a member of the Academy, paid to the fame and memory of Lamartine the highest tribute ever bestowed on him as a writer and a man. The extraordinary popularity of Lamartine as a politician was followed by execration, and then by indifference. Athenaeum.

b. It pained him much to perceive that one who had always been considered a frank, true-hearted young man, and who left the forest to fight in defence of his king, was now turned a traitor, and had joined the ranks of the enemy. Marryat, *Children of the New Forest*.

Who would ever have thought that James Southwold would have turned a traitor! ib.

c. Why should he not turn an excellent husband?

Would you never think the present made amends for the past? Not if I turned a good fellow, and gave up everything you didn't like?

George Eliot, *Silas Marner* ch. 11.

1402. The use of predicative plain nouns is not limited to the case that a contrast between the qualities of one person is thought of. The final reason for the use of the plain noun is the adjectival character of the predicative noun, and this may occur in other cases. It will account for the use of the plain noun as a nominal predicate in the following examples.

Against his change of politics she raised no protest, though she herself was born and bred Conservative.

Pickthall, *Larkmeadow* ch. 16.

This thesis — for thesis, and nothing more, it at present is — would no doubt make the basis of a very keen discussion in any gathering of naval men.

Times W. 12/6, 1914, p. 479/1.

When he resolved that Sam Weller should be occupant

of the prison with Mr. Pickwick, he was perhaps thinking of his favourite Smollett, and how, when Peregrine Pickle was inmate of the Fleet, Hatchway and Pipes refused to leave him. Forster-Gissing.

Tolstoy, like other men of genius, was in his heart more woman than man, but he was mere man enough to be blind to the charms of rawer infancy.

Times Lit. 29/10, '14.

He had never quite grown out of the feeling that to make himself conspicuous in any way was bad form¹⁾. Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 3.

1403. A special case of the construction of the preceding section is the one with front-position of the predicative noun in a concessive clause with *as* or *though* (*a*). We may also mention the exclamative sentences with the same word-order (*b*).

a. Sketch as it is, the book is no mere compilation.
Athenaeum 18/11, '11.

Mr. Eden Phillpotts, exquisite artist as he is in prose, still cherished an ambition to wear the sister bays.
Academy 17/8, '12.

Alice Galleon — delightful woman though she was, of course couldn't endure that another woman should receive praise — Jealousy! Ah.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 3 p. 260.

Child though he was, consciousness of self had come to him. Benson, Blaize ch. 5.

b. I have encouraged him too much — vain fool that I was. Kingsley, Hypatia ch. 4.

1404. We also find the plain noun in predicative adjuncts to an object (*a*), and in adjuncts with *as* (*b*), and *by way of* (*c*).

1) Perhaps *form* should rather be considered an abstract noun in this sense.

a. In the subsequent part of the main narrative will be found exemplified nearly all the varieties of pathos of which Dickens was afterwards so repeatedly to prove himself master. Ward, Dickens ch. 2 p. 23.

Better so than have his own conscience denouncing him sneak. Meredith, Feverel p. 16.

Then came Bishop Kaye, who ordained me deacon and priest. Hole, Mem. p. 134.

b. As precedent for this he might quote nearly all the greatest novel-writers. Academy 7/10, 1905.

But all this, inspiring though it was, served but as prelude to a more profoundly coveted acquaintance. Malet, Calmady.

c. Mr. Oak carried about him, by way of watch, what may be called a small silver clock.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. I p. 2.

1405. The adjectival character of a predicative noun is evident when it is qualified by *enough*. In such a case the article is never found. Compare also the sections on the conversion of nouns into predicative adjectives.

Clotilda was woman enough to appreciate his personal refinement. Sidgwick, Severins.

Mark was artist enough to perceive the delicious half-tones, the tender shades beneath the round chin and about the finely modelled cheeks.

Vachell, Brothers vol. II ch. 5.

She was free agent enough to take so much on herself. Trollope, Framley ch. 35.

He seems to have been villain enough for anything. de Morgan, Vance ch. 49.

1406. When a predicative noun has a distinctly substantive function, the article must be used. See 1401.

"Why do you take all this trouble for Milly?" she asked him. "It's very good of you."

"Because I'm a fool, a meddling ass," he replied lightly. Bennett, Leonora ch. 7.

I mean to say, by way of an example, once when I was golfing in Scotland, I saw a woman come into the hotel who was the living image of my aunt Margaret.

Strand Mag. July 1925.

1407. It is probably the adjectival character of the noun in *of*-adjuncts to the words *dignity*, *post*, *rank*, *title*, that is the cause of the absence of the article as in the following cases.

Already the office of bishop had its aristocratic pretensions.
Athen. 28/8, '15.

Gentlemen of the rank of Prince seem to abound.
ib. 7/10, '11.

The *Gazette* announces the promotion of the Prince of Wales to the rank of Lieutenant. Times W. 11/12, '14.

1408. These *of*-adjuncts are also parallel with the predicative adjuncts with *as*; see 1397 ff.

Mr. Dick's book is a rehabilitation of Burns in the capacity of musician (contrast: poet). Academy.

And suppose, Mr. Saturday Reviewer — you *censor morum*, you who pique yourself... upon your character of gentleman as well as writer...

Thackeray, Roundabout Papers.

Both in his character of gentleman and in his character of scholar, Fletcher looked down with disdain on common people.

Now the king ... had promoted the only man in England, combining the gifts both of butcher and cook.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 72 p. 545.

1409. As in the case of the predicative nouns we find the article in these *of*-adjuncts when the substantival (class-noun) character of the word is foremost.

As a young man he followed several occupations, including that of a butcher. Times W. 31/1, '13.

Training institutions not only find it difficult to attract

students, but also to keep them to the career of a teacher afterwards. Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

Upon the abdication of the Tsar he played the part of a counsellor and friend to the Provisional Government. Times W. 11/1, '18.

In the same year 1715, he had assumed the character of a quaker in some of his tracts.

Camb. Hist. of Eng. Lit. IX p. 19.

It will be noted that in all these cases the nouns are such as easily suggest numbers: the first sentence suggests that *he was once a butcher*; the first sentence of 1409, on the contrary, makes us think of the contrast *the poet Burns and the musician Burns*. And the sentences of 1407 seem to suggest *bishop* or *Prince So-and So*, not *he was a bishop*, or *he was a prince*.

The class-noun character of *marchioness* is emphasized in the following sentence, which perfectly agrees with the explanation proposed here.

As sure as we are in this room, I shall be the Marquis of Farintosh. I offer you the coronet, the wealth, the position of a marchioness — of the first marchioness in England. Do you accept? Garvice, Staunch p. 136.

1410. We have an apparently similar case of the absence of the article before the nouns with *sort of*, *kind of*: *a sort of faint excitement*, *that sort of question*, etc. It will be shown, in the chapter on the preposition *of*, that this is an entirely different case, and that there is no question of the absence of the article, in the sense of the term that is meant here, at all.

1411. The absence of the article has been shown in predicative nouns and in a case that is evidently related to it. There is a second case when the plain class-noun is used: when the noun serving as a subject is made

negative by a negative adverb-adjunct in the predicate. The special function of the adverbs is shown by their front-position, which causes them to be equivalent to an attributive *no* or *any*; in reality, however, the adverb forms part of the predicate, as is evident when it is separated from the subject by other words.

Never master had a more faithful servant.

Never was woman more determined to make the best of a bad job. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 25 p. 312.

The servant . . . burst into loud sobs, yelling that Sophia had been the most excellent mistress that servant ever had.

Bennett, *Old W. Tale* IV ch. 4 § 4 p. 537.

If ever man had an easy task, this of ours¹⁾ ought to be.

Against the face of all the facts, and the clearest charge which judge had ever given, the jury brought in a simultaneous verdict of Not Guilty.

Lamb, *Essay on Roast Pig*.

I am plucked as clean as ever was pigeon.

Trollope, *Three Clerks*.

1412. As in the case of the predicative nouns, the class-noun character may be so prominent that the classifying indefinite article is used.

Never was a man so overrated by the world and by himself.

Never was a woman more unhappy in her lovers than this pathetic Queen of Scots.

Plain Nouns and Nouns with the Indefinite Article Compared

1413. It has been shown that the plain noun generally shows a relationship with the noun with a definite or with an indefinite article. But there are some cases when the plain noun could only take a definite article, as an

1) i.e. this task of ours.

alternative, although in closely similar cases an indefinite article is used. This applies to predicative nouns expressing rank, a title, post, etc. when they can refer to one person only. The plain noun is used in nominal predicates (*a*), in adjuncts with *as* and *for* (*b*), and in adjuncts to the object (*c*).

a. Such was the man who, at the age of thirty-three, became headmaster of Rugby.

Lytton Strachey, *Em. Vict.* p. 180.

He is Tammany candidate for mayor, but otherwise undistinguished, except that he is a Member of Congress.

Of this Guild Mr. Haldane, the Secretary of State for War is president.

In fact, he had been asked to become tutor to Lord Hartington.

He was for many years reader and literary adviser to Messrs. Chapman and Hall.

Sturge-Henderson, *Meredith* p. 9.

In 52 B. C. Pompey was made sole consul.

Goodspeed, *Hist.* p. 347.

When he was only 26 and a layman he was chosen headmaster of Harrow in succession to Dr. Vaughan.

Times W. 18/1, '18.

b. About this time an elderly woman of the village came to live as servant at the parsonage.

Gaskell, *Life of C. Brontë* ch. 5.

A committee with Sir Oliver Lodge as Chairman.

As rector of Alderley he breathed new vigour into parish work.

Dryden owned that as Chancellor he was "swift to despatch, and easy of access."

There was less profundity in the letters he soon afterwards began to write as special correspondent for the *Daily News*.

In this eventful year Tennyson succeeded Wordsworth as poet laureate.

In the autumn of 1903 Sir Norman Lockyer, as President of the British Association, delivered a very remarkable address.

He acted as correspondent for the *Morning Post* during the Austro-Italian war of 1866.

Sturge-Henderson, Meredith.

Here for many years, as Prince of Wales, he entertained his relations, his friends, and his neighbours.

Lucky devil, Felix, to have her for daughter!

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 23.

For master he had a born soldier and mighty hunter, too much of a soldier maybe to be a successful general.

Cont. Rev. Oct. 1930 p. 497.

c. German tribes deposed the last Roman emperor, and proclaimed their leader Odoaker king of Rome.

Goodspeed.

1414. It is evident that in none of these sentences the indefinite article could be thought of. But when the noun is used in the same way, except that it does not refer to one person, the indefinite article is invariably used.

a. In his twenty-third year he became a reporter for the *Morning Chronicle*. Forster-Gissing.

My father was an officer in an Indian regiment, who sent me home when I was quite a child.

Prof. Kapteyn, of Groningen, Holland, has been elected an Honorary Member of the Royal Irish Academy.

Athenaeum.

The bishop's son sat for a neighbouring borough, and was created a baronet for his services, which were of the most straightforward kind.

People sometimes ask the idle question why the Pope does not introduce this or that reform? The true answer is that a revolutionist is not the kind of man who becomes a Pope, and that a man who is a Pope has not any wish to be a revolutionist.

Dicey, *Law of the Const. Lect. II* p. 74.

b. Steele left College without taking a degree, and entered the Army as a cadet. Dennis, *Age of Pope*.

Lord Sydenham has tendered his resignation as a member of the Board. Times W. 5/1, '17.

As a hermit he had lived, as a hermit he would die. Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 42.

It seems hardly credible that we should have taken Ibsen for a realist, but we did. Times Lit. 9/3, '16.

c. In 1717 Sunderland became Prime Minister, and made Addison a Secretary of State.

Dennis, *Age of Pope* p. 135.

1415. Absence of the article is very frequent before predicative nouns with an *of*-adjunct.

Colonel Rannion was brother of the wife of the man for whom George had built the house at Hampstead.

Bennett, *Roll-Call II* ch. 3 § 1.

Her father, Robert Evans, was son of George Evans, a builder and carpenter in Derbyshire.

L. Stephen, G. Eliot.

Mr. Millar, who has been on the staff of the Dundee Advertiser for twenty-seven years, is author of several works. Athenaeum.

Williams was son of an officer in the service of the East India Company. Lit. World.

A man sat writing near a window of an old house out in the country a few years ago; it was afternoon of the twenty-third of December. Allen, *Mistletoe* p. 13.

1416. A third case is that of the adjuncts with *of*, which frequently take a noun without an article when the reference is to a single person.

Having thus accomplished his object as he believed, Sulla resigned the office of dictator (74 B.C.), retired to private life and died not long after.

Goodspeed, *Hist.* p. 341.

.378 PLAIN NOUNS & NOUNS WITH THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

The death of Mr. Alfred Austin leaves the office of Poet Laureate vacant. Quarterly Rev. July 1913.

In 1714, on the death of the Queen, Addison was once more in office, and held his old position of Irish Secretary. Dennis, Age of Pope p. 132.

Mr. Bryce's rather sudden retirement from the post of British Ambassador at Washington will be learnt with wide regret. Times W. 15/11, '12.

Note. It would be easy to adduce parallels to the cases of nouns without an article in many other languages. Students of Germanic and Romance languages will need no references.

PREPOSITIONS

1417. It has often been remarked in modern times that the distinction of prepositions as a part of speech (class of words) is not based on any formal or syntactic characteristics that are peculiar to the words included by the term. The most acceptable definition of the term may be: a preposition is a word that is used to form a close group with a noun, the group serving as an adjunct. Thus *in* is used as a preposition in the following sentence: *John is in his room*. It is evident that *in* is the same word, however, when we say: *John is in*; yet, we speak of an adverb here, because the word qualifies the verb. Even this apparently simple distinction is not always simple; it is not applicable to the sentence: *I want to have a look at the house we used to live in many years ago*. Here it is, indeed, possible to interpret *in* as forming a group, if a distance-group, with *the house*; but it is impossible to deny that *in* forms a group with the verb *live*. The latter interpretation is necessary to account for such uses as *The place must have been lived in at this date* (see 458).

1418. A preposition generally precedes the noun it makes into an adjunct, but it can follow. This word-order may cause the word to become more of an adverb, but not necessarily.

She is, according to the bond, at the beck and call
of the employer the day through.

Everyman 25/4, 1913.

He might have searched Europe over for a greater contrast between juxtaposed scenes.

Hardy, Ironies (Western Circuit).

1419. The prepositions not only form groups with nouns, but also with words or word-groups that serve as nouns syntactically.

He worked *till* late at night.

I never heard of it *till* now.

You must get the locum¹⁾, and come. You know you can, and it's all nonsense *about* can't.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 26 p. 283.

from amongst the crowd; *to* within an inch; not *till* *after* the examination; winning *by* about 130 yards; the fleet consisted *of* from seventeen to twenty sail of the line.

The judgments based *upon* not far from four decades of experience in the near East are embodied in this volume.

Athenaeum.

1420. It is not always possible to distinguish between prepositions and conjunctions. Examples have been given in the chapter on the *Personal Pronouns* (973 ff); we may also refer to *with* in free adjuncts (115). Other prepositions that are used as conjunctions are *from* and the groups *instead of*, *by way of*. See the chapter on *Conjunctions*.

I expressed a good deal of admiration; whereupon, little by little, the manner of my conductors changed. From constrained, depressed, it became responsive; even, in the end, effusive. Henry Harland, House of Eulalie, in Sel. Short Stories II p. 398.

Gibbon and Adam Smith did not speak of Oxford, as it then was, very differently from Brown.

Times Lit. 12/2, 1920.

1) i.e. the locum-tenens, for a doctor taking a holiday.

If the United States had, like Canada and Australia, been linked with England in 1914 instead of severed from Europe by the Monroe doctrine, it would . . .

Somervell, Hist. of England p. 60.

"But everybody will know you belong to Guy," said Margaret, "instead of to all of us."

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 208.

1421. The prepositions are also used in English to introduce relative (*a*) and interrogative clauses; the latter may open with a pronoun or pronominal adverb (*b*) or with a conjunction (*c*). See also volume 3 on the *Compound Sentence*.

a. Now, Brun's method of begging was different in large cities from what it was in the country.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 6 p. 41.

Such was the massive protest of Bursley against what Bursley regarded as a callous injustice.

Bennett, Old W. Tale II ch. 5 § 5 p. 238.

Rodney stood by the wall. He was unlike Peter in this, that his resentment towards a person who motored across Tuscany between dusk and dawn was in no way lessened by the discovery of who it was.

Rose Macauly, Lee Shore ch. 5 p. 63 f.

His mind roved back to when, in the early 'eighties, as a very young lawyer, he had handled Uncle Swithin's defence against a fellow member of the Walpole Club.

Galsworthy, Silver Spoon I ch. 13 p. 96.

b. There was a longer fight about who should be king.

Goodspeed, Hist. of the Ancient World.

At length he reached to where the ravine had opened through the cliffs to the amphitheatre.

Washington Irving, Sketch-Book.

This reflection was most agreeable, for Gaston was perfectly aware of how little he himself would have enjoyed a struggle.

Besides, all troublesome questions about who Sally's father was would get lost sight of in the fact that her mother had changed her name in connexion with that sacred and glorious thing, an inheritance.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 8 p. 69.

c. (Season-tickets). It depends upon whether you want an annual, a quarterly or a monthly.

Collinson, Spoken English p. 44.

We are not at the present moment greatly interested in whether these two articulations are really identical or, at the least, very similar.

Sapir, Language I, ii p. 37 (June 1925).

Furthermore, we are not in the least concerned with whether or not a language is of great practical value or is the medium of a great culture.

Sapir, Language p. 132 (footnote).

"I agree with the kitten."

"What about?"

"About if he has any¹⁾). I believe he'd be glad if Miss Wilson took the bit in her teeth and bolted."

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 26 p. 281.

1422. It has been shown in 1417 that prepositions are adverbs in a special function. Some words, however, are exclusively used in what may be considered prepositional functions, i. e. in a group with a noun or pronoun for its leading member in the two ways illustrated above: *to talk to a friend; whom were you talking to?* Such prepositions are *of, with, from, at*.

We might distinguish these as *pure* prepositions from the others which might be called *adverbial* prepositions.

Other words, though never used as adverbs, are also frequent as conjunctions: *for, till; against* is rare as a conjunction, at least in Standard English.

1423. With regard to their form prepositions may be simple, such as *in, to, off, of, from, with, before, after, through*, etc.; or they may be word-groups, such as have been mentioned in the sections on the absence of the article: *in (the) face of, in case of*, etc. (see 1363); also *out of, up to*, etc., really of the

1) i. e. about the question if he has any objection to his daughter marrying Julius Bradshaw.

same type as *until*, *into*, although these are written in one word. The group-prepositions, both those of the type *in case of*, etc. and those consisting of an adverb and a preposition, such as *into*, *onto*, *upon*, *up till*, etc., always are of the purely prepositional type discussed in 1422.

Some of the group-prepositions of the type *in case of* can also be used without a preposition after the noun; thus we find both *on board a steamer*, *on board of a steamer*. Such a group as *on board* hardly differs from a preposition like *beside*. Compare also *beside*, *outside*, *inside*; and *on either side* in the following quotation.

In the pretentious and banal sitting-room they sat down on either side the fire.

Bennett, Old W. Tale IV ch. 4 § 6.

The two types of group-prepositions that have been illustrated may be distinguished as nominal (*in case of*) and adverbial (*into*, *up to*.) A third type are the verbal derivatives in *-ing*. If an *ing* from a verb that is construed with an object is used in an unrelated adjunct, it can often be interpreted as part of an adverb adjunct as well. Some *ings* are so frequently used in this way that they are most naturally looked upon as prepositions; such are *during*, *pending*, *including*, *notwithstanding*. See volume 3 on the *Simple Sentence*.

1424. The treatment of the meanings of the individual prepositions in modern languages is generally left to the dictionary. This seems a suitable arrangement, but a grammar that attempts to give a fairly complete idea of the structure of a language like modern English, which makes so much use of prepositions, cannot completely transfer its task in this respect to the dictionary. Some general observations seem necessary, and also a treatment of those prepositions that have little meaning of their own, and consequently are more important from a syntactic point of view than the others.

1425. The prepositional groups in modern languages have often been compared with the case-forms of other languages, usually those in related languages, including the earlier stages of the 'same' language. This may be instructive as long as it is avoided to emphasize the similarity of the two constructions only, instead of giving equal attention to the differences.

In English a preposition forms part of an adjunct to a verb, a noun, or an adjective. The noun which is grouped with it is invariably in the stem form, unless we include the group *for.... sake*, which takes a genitive noun; but this group, if it is to be considered a preposition, is at any rate an isolated form and consequently of little importance in the study of living English sentence-structure.

Prepositions generally express time or place; but this fundamental meaning has often led to others of a more abstract kind. Thus, *from* not only expresses the place of origin, but also cause; *by* primarily expresses neighbourhood but also the means, especially the agent from whom an action proceeds (*killed by his own brother*). It may also be observed that a preposition of place may express relations of space only, such as *near*; but also space in connection with the action, such as *by* and *at*. This last distinction, which will remind students of Indo-Germanic syntax of differences expressed by the case-forms of the locative and instrumental, is important, when we wish to explain the difference between *she was sitting near the window* or *at the window*, differences that are generally treated by 'practical' grammarians as matters of 'idiom'¹⁾. A similar explanation will account for the

1) Take this sentence, for an example.

He announced his will to Caroline one evening, as she was sitting at work *near* the drawing-room window; her face was turned towards him, and the light fell full upon it. Brontë, Shirley ch. 10 p. 170.

Near the window suggests: so that her uncle could observe her. *By the window* would suggest that *she had selected this position*, so as to be able to look out, or to have a better light for her work, or for some other reason.

apparently arbitrary use of *in* and *at* before names of places (*live in London, in the Hague, at the Hague, settle at the Hague*).

1426. The use of a preposition may often be analogical; thus, *dislike to something* may by the influence of *like of* and *like for*, be replaced by *dislike of*, or *for*. In the same way nouns expressing or suggesting an action are often construed with the same preposition as is required by the corresponding verb.

An interesting introduction to the book (cf. *to introduce to*).

M. Liard, the eminent successor to M. Gréard (cf. *to succeed to*).

(Captain Mahan) is therefore in great measure responsible for the entry of the United States into world politics (cf. *to enter into*).

He is a regular contributor to that paper (cf. *to contribute to*).

M. St. Brice regards the entry of England on to the scene as a decisive factor. Morning Post 5/8, 16.

1427. Hence also the preposition is often *by* when the adjunct expresses the agent of a noun (or adjective) with a verbal meaning.

A closed door which baffles attempts at ingress by Europeans.

(This) lies at the bottom of frequent complaints by employers of the general incompetence of the boys who come to them from elementary State-aided schools.

The thirty-four volumes octavo render this opinion untenable by those who can read. Birrell, *Obiter Dicta*.

1428. Some prepositions are frequently used without any definite meaning being attached to them, or even without any meaning at all. Thus in *the town of Hamburg* the preposition *of* has no meaning; but it has the grammatical function of connecting *town* and the proper name. *To insist on a condition* conveys a clear meaning, but no clear meaning is attached to *on* here.

We shall treat of those prepositions only that have definite grammatical functions. They are *of*, *to*, and *for*; less definitely grammatical are *by* and *with*. It may be noted that the first three have weakened forms: [ə(v), tə, fə(r)]; see *English Sounds* 222.

1429. When *of* makes a word into an adjunct to *of* a verb it sometimes has a meaning (*She died of grief*), but this is exceptional, and hardly ever occurs with nouns. In accordance with 1426 we may have the same meaning when the *of*-adjunct is construed with a verbal noun: *within a stone's throw of his land*. *Of* is exceptionally used, in literary English, to express the agent of a participle, the usual preposition being *by*.

A wretch forsaken of God and man.

Freeman, Norman Conquest.

Everything seems to be done of those who govern Spain to keep travellers out of that country.

Daily News 10/11, 1898.

1430. Perhaps *of* also has a meaning of its own (*out of*) in the emphasizing combinations *of all things*, *of all men*, *of all others*; although *of* is now frequently understood as an equivalent of *above*, which is sometimes substituted for it¹⁾. See 1435.

a. Maggie dreaded Tom's anger of all things.

Eliot, Mill on the Floss I ch. 5.

I shall like it above all things. Kipling, Gadsbys.

b. "Oh, my dear Mr. Arabin," said she, "have you never sat down yet? I am so distressed. You of all men too." Trollope, Barch. Towers ch. 38.

It is a time of all others, when Want is keenly felt, and Abundance rejoices. Dickens, Christmas Carol I.

And then his mind must needs go off to the thing of all others he wished not to think of — himself.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 38 p. 411.

1) Poutsma II, p. 1027 f.

c. A young and clever man was coming into that lonely heath from, of all contrasting places in the world, Paris. Hardy, Native II ch. 1 p. 131.

The quotations of *a* seem to permit of a logical analysis (*of* meaning *out of*); in those marked *b* a shifting has taken place, and the group is an attributive adjunct, whereas in the sentence of *c* it even precedes what can hardly be called its leading noun here, and the *of*-group is consequently separated from it by a break. *Of* also has a grammatical function in adverb adjuncts expressing iteration of time: *of an evening*, *of a Thursday*, etc.

1431. An *of*-adjunct may qualify a *preceding* noun, expressing all the meanings of the attributive genitive (833). It is used with those nouns that can also take a genitive as well as those that cannot, but only as an attributive (not a predicative) adjunct. *Of*-adjuncts are more frequent than genitives to express the 'objective' relation. See also 841 ff. and 1459 ff.

The average height of a Chinaman is four inches less than that of an Englishman. Sweet, Elementarbuch.

The legs of the table are quite grey with dust.

In a sense all social problems lie behind that of education, though they react upon one another.

Times Ed. S. 19/10, '16.

His eyes were franker and simpler even than the eyes of Edwin, and his lips seemed to be permanently parted in a good-humoured smile. Bennett, Clayhanger I ch. 1 § 2.

Punch, Jan. 1912, quoted: "Utmost Limit", "Offer of Britain to Ireland", Headlines in an Australian paper, and commented: It seems to go beyond the limit¹⁾

...; but when she was blinking in the sunlight outside the station preparatory to her promenade *of* the walls of York, it recurred to her.

Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 1 p. 10.

1) To avoid 'misunderstanding', Punch would evidently have preferred: *Britain's Offer to Ireland*.

The argument lasted a long time with illustrations and comparisons taken from life at Sirene, which were so vividly related that Mr. Vibart announced his intention of going there as soon as possible. Jasmine was so much gratified by her conversion of an Englishman that she surrendered about the payment for the ice.

ib. ch. I p. 31.

She did not suppose that she should ever see again this companion *of* a few hours. ib. ch. I p. 32.

The post-genitive with *of* has been fully illustrated in 842.

1432. *Of*-adjuncts may also serve other functions than those of the genitive (*a*). These adjuncts are also used predicatively (*b*).

a. An army of three million men.

The end of his candle of tallow¹⁾.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. I.

A floor of wood or tiles.

A house of cards.

A thing of my own making.

A thing of his own creation.

In his Preface of otherwise lively optimism Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch expresses one doubt. Athen. 21/12, '12.

There was no reason why a bachelor of no occupation like myself should not be packing up for the tropics within half an hour.

Mackenzie, Old Men of the Sea ch. 3 p. 34.

b. The floors were of tiles.

The birds have no fear of me; am I not also of the brown brethren in my sober fustian livery.

Fairless, Road-mender I.

Miss Helstone's new acquaintance soon became of value to her. Brontë, Shirley ch. 12 p. 219.

My earliest recollection is of being taken as a small boy with an elder brother to Bristol...

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. I p. 2.

1) Compare vol. 3 on *Composition*.

1433. Special mention may be made of the *of*-adjuncts which repeat the leading noun. They are used to express an extreme or intense degree and may be distinguished as *intensifying* adjuncts.

He is in short a Latin of the Latins, who went to study the Teutonism of the Teuton on the spot¹⁾.

Times Lit. 21/9, '16.

Lord Midleton's attitude was significant. He is a Conservative of the Conservatives, yet he strongly supports a more active scrutiny of War office expenditure.

Daily News 21/6, '15.

Jim recognised that the girl before him — whether European or not — was an aristocrat of the aristocrats.

Vere Shortt, Lost Sheep, London 1915, p. 91.

Southeby was in 1830 a Tory of the Tories.

Dicey, Law and Opinion p. 223.

Alcibiades took up the interest of the people, posing as a radical of the radicals. Goodspeed, History p. 172.

The quotations illustrate the predicative use of the construction (not of the adjunct only). In them the repetition serves to emphasize the intense degree of the *quality* expressed by the predicative noun; the noun in the *of*-adjunct is preceded by the classifying article.

1434. The predicative use is sometimes emphasized by the absence of the indefinite article before the leading noun. But the nouns, in this case, can also be looked upon as adjectives.

Nevil Beauchamp, the hero of his most political novel, is Radical of the Radicals.

Montgomery, Problems I 54.

At one time his utterances are radical of the radical²⁾;

1) Note the outward parallelism (*Latin of the Latins, Teutonism of the Teuton*) which is emphatic, as repetition is apt to be (see vol. 3), although there is no logical meaning behind it.

2) Note the form without *-s*: *radical* is evidently looked upon as an adjective converted into a neuter noun.

at another his radical friends are appalled and struck dumb by his apparent apostacy.

Camb. Hist. of Engl. Lit. XIII 21.

The writer analyses with great skill the phenomena of what is usually called the Englishman's hypocrisy, and as English of the English is able to show exactly what it is of fact and delusion that produces the familiar manifestation.

Pilot 7/3, 1903.

Henley railed at his country and generation but for all that he was English of the English.

Academy 17/8, '12.

1435. To emphasize that we have the greatest, most important, etc. of a class, the noun in the adjunct is sometimes preceded by *all*. Compare 1430.

Everything is quite satisfactory. And this night of all nights you must dine with me. Wells, Country p. 142.

Lacking no virtue except the virtue of all virtues—success.

Crawford, Lonely Parish ch. 2.

1436. The intensifying adjunct can also express the greatest, strongest, or most characteristic specimen of a class. In this case the unique article (see 1192 f.) precedes the whole group, whereas the plural noun in the *of*-adjunct takes no article on account of its subordinate function in the group.

Mr. Kearton, the pioneer of pioneers, is no exception to this rule.

Athenaeum 19/6, '15.

Is it not wonderful — nay, is it not the marvel of marvels — that human life has reached such a high point of public and private organization?

Gissing, Ryecroft, Summer VI.

He is the strong man, the white man of white men.

Mc. Neill, The Egregious English p. 10.

Do you not know in your heart of hearts that she was not suited to be happy as my wife?

Trollope, Framley ch. 30 p. 296.

When the hour of hours seemed to have struck, when even the most sanguine were giving orders which should safeguard the retreat of the guns, what was Tommy doing? Quoted, Times Lit. 16/3, '16.

And certainly, at the period when Mrs. Baines represented modernity, castor-oil was still the remedy of remedies. Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 3 § 4.

But for all that he was human, and English, and theoretically accepted gold as the thing of things, the one great aim and measure of success.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 36 p. 385.

1437. The closeness of the group in the case of the preceding section is shown by the fact that the noun in the *of*-adjunct can occur in the stem form, so that the logical analysis as one specimen out of a class is impossible. In this form the construction is one of intensifying repetition only.

Speech was the fibre of his being; and when he spoke, the ambiguity of ambiguity was revealed.

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 265.

Beppino in his *secundum artem* suit, very tourist of very tourist, walking about the deck....

de Morgan, Vance ch. 43 p. 448.

1438. It has been stated that it is the function of prepositions to make a *following* word into an adjunct. *Of* differs from all other prepositions in that it sometimes makes a *preceding* noun into an adjunct; thus in *a pound of butter* it makes *pound* into an adjunct of *butter*. In this way *of* is specially used after nouns expressing number, quantity, or weight.

A brace of partridges; a gross of pens; a pair of pistols; a number of horsemen; a lot of people; the rest of the world.

I have got dozens of plants here that are supposed not to grow in a garden. Sweet, Spoken Engl. p. 70.

A cup of tea; a pound of rice; a slice of ham; a

shipload of wheat; a quarter of an hour; a third of a pound.

She thought that it ought to have no end of an effect in drawing closer the ties that bind.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 17 p. 192.

"I think you might have warned me," returned the other, with a touch of sullenness.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 13.

And just at that point, a certain sinister block of building thrust forward its gable on the street. ib. p. 5.

Similarly in the following sentences.

Well, sir, he was like the rest of us.

Stevenson, Jekyll p. 8.

He would have clearly liked to stick out; but there was something about the lot of us that meant mischief.
ib. p. 9.

1439. The attributive function has caused some nouns expressing a definite number to be used without *of*. *Hundred*, *thousand*, *million* are regularly so used. The construction is also frequent with *score*, *dozen*, and *half*, especially in spoken English. The nouns of definite number can take a definite or an indefinite numeral before them; they retain the stem form.

A hundred men.

From the half dozen or so lives and reminiscences.
Mair, Eng. Lit. p. 140.

In about ten years he produced a couple of dozen of comedies, farces and burlesques.

Millar, Mid-eighteenth Cent. p. 152.

The age of man is three score years and ten.

Some two score of obsolete verbs. Athen. I/II, '13.

Pestilence swept off half his men.

Two hundred feet below surged the Pacific.

Vachell, Spragge p. 5.

We certainly passed a couple of hundred patients being conveyed to the railway. Times W. 29/II, 12.

A few hundred years ago the whole of the New World and a large part of the Old World were unknown.

He farms several thousand acres of land in Essex.

Will none of our own rich men, with a taste for speculative investment, lay out a few score thousand pounds in prospecting for buried art and buried knowledge?

Times W. 16/5, 13.

1440. *Of* must be used when the noun in the *of*-adjunct is preceded by another qualifier (*a*), or when it is a personal pronoun (*b*). In these cases the noun of definite number is really the leading element of the group.

a. A dozen of these apples.

A score of my books.

Half of these old priests, thought Michael, were probably puppets who did not understand even their own cracked Latinity. Sinister Street p. 678.

b. A hundred of them were rotten.

I had forgotten half of it before I got there.

1441. After *indefinite* numerals the nouns of definite number are sometimes used attributively in the plural form. In this case the noun they qualify is always connected with it by *of* (*a*). The preposition *of* is occasionally found when the singular is used (*b*); it *must* be used when the headword has other pronominal qualifiers (*c*), and when it is a pronoun (*d*).

a. Several thousands of people attended the meeting.
Times W. 19/7, 18.

b. Varying from a few pounds to a few hundred of pounds.
Bennett, Anna ch. 8.

We may take leave to add that the poem contains a few dozen of good lines.

Millar, Mid-Eighteenth Cent. p. 188.

As it flew now, indeed it must pass a hundred million of miles wide of the earth.

Wells, Country of the Blind p. 315.

Some two score of obsolete verbs. *Athenaeum.*

c. For want of a few hundred of these fellows we haven't paid a dividend for years.

Galsworthy, *Man of Property* ch. 3.

It would be easy to draw up a list of many score of such instances. *Athen. 24/7, 15.*

d. It was organized by the Left Social Revolutionists, who, the messages state, are now in flight from the city. Several hundred of them have been arrested.

Times W. 12/7, 18.

1442. The plural form is also necessary:

a. after *some*.

We saw some hundreds of these birds.

The ice of glaciers often attains a thickness of many hundred or even some thousands of feet.

Avebury, Scenery of England.

Some hundred would mean 'about a hundred'.

b. when no numeral precedes.

Hundreds of pounds were spent.

If Savernake and Fontainebleau are forests, what are these hundreds of square miles of pines?

Blackwood's Magaz. Aug. 1912.

1443. Some nouns of definite number are always connected with the word they qualify by *of*: *a brace of partridges*. They are felt to be attributively used, however, and take the stem form after numerals. Such are *brace*, *team*, *gross*.

A thousand team of cattle conveyed the timber to the coast. *NED. s.v. team.*

Twenty brace of pheasants. Two gross of pens.

Several brace of partridges.

1444. The word *pair* denoting a right and a left of something usually takes the plural form; also *million*, except when a numeral follows.

Six and a half pairs of eyes. Wells, Country p. 204.

I have also bought some pairs of stockings.

Two pairs of silk stockings.

We were the object of the concentrated gaze of some eight thousand pairs of eyes. Haggard, Sol.'s Mines.

Four millions of people = four million people.

Three millions sterling.

But 4004056 is usually

four million four thousand and fifty-six.

On *pair* as a numerative, see 823.

1445. The stem form, instead of the plural, of the nouns of definite number in these constructions is evidently the result of their subordinate character as members of the syntactic group. This subordination is naturally greater when the noun has little independent meaning of its own, as in the case of the numeratives (818 ff.). Closely related to these are *kind* and *sort* when used as in the following quotations.

... with a sort of restless searching on his face.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 20 p. 192.

That grandfather had always been a sort of satisfaction to mother. Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 7.

It gives one a last straw kind of feeling.

ib. ch. 6 p. 60.

We find both constructions, with *kind* entirely subordinated in meaning (*a*), and as an independent element of the group (*b*) in the following sentence.

Had it been Peter's first novel it must have made an immense stir; it showed that he was, in no kind of way (*a*), a man of one book, and it gave, in its London scenes, proof that its author was not limited to one kind of life and one kind of background (*b*).

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 8 p. 315.

1446. The subordination of *sort*, *kind*, *manner*, or similar words, is sometimes shown by the use of the article. Thus in *a sort of pleasure* the article qualifies the whole group with *pleasure* as its leading element. See 1410.

It gave Felix Freeland a sort of faint excitement and pleasure to notice this. Galsworthy, Frelands p. 11.

If you lived in the country, old man, you would not ask that sort of question. ib. ch. 6 p. 64.

A sort of queer prescience. ib. 79.

A sort of stunned excitement. ib. ch. 8 p. 89.

She went to see what sort of day it was.

Galsworthy, Frelands ch. 8.

It was a species of small hall, somewhat resembling a chapel. ib. ch. 24.

The wind, which only broke in puffs and draughts into that deep well of building, tossed the light of the candle to and fro. Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 78.

1447. The original analysis of this construction is still possible. Hence we also find an indefinite article before the prepositional noun. In groups with *what manner of* the prepositional noun never takes an indefinite article, whereas the article does occur in the groups *what sort of*, *what kind of*; see 1061.

He is a good sort of a fellow after all.

Trollope, Last Chronicle ch. 31 p. 272.

Don't forget it's the most sensible kind of a house you've ever seen. Bennett, Card ch. 8 § 6.

To know what kind of a navy we need we must first know what foreign policy we are pursuing and what is our relation to the other powers.

Daily News 16/2, '12.

1448. The shifting of the members of these groups is shown by the following sentence.

"What kind of looking men were they?" I asked of another. "Very much like lawyers," he answered at once.
Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 22 p. 190.

The subordination of *sort*, *kind*, *manner* also influences their stress. Thus, in Sweet's *Elementarbuch* no. 14 we find the leading noun in a prepositional group marked with strong stress but *kind* is medium-stressed:

ə dijp houl o pit -in̩ə graudn.

ən soumeidə :kaindəv avn. -in sampaatsəv nɔjə merikə.

Compare also from Sweet's *Primer of Spoken English* p. 51:

ənd ənə maindz wə fild wið əl :scts əv skijmz əv
ədventʃə.

1449. In the following sentences the adjective qualifies the prepositional noun or the whole group, not *sort* or *kind*.

"Well, I'm not an atom bit sleepy," said Kezia.
"But my eyes keep curling up in such a funny sort of way." K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 10.

But Kezia bit a big piece out of her bread and dripping, and then stood the piece up on her plate. With the bite out it made a dear little sort of a gate.
ib. p. 5.

The adjunct-character of *kind* or *sort* in *a sort of hero*, etc., explains the fact that it can be made into a formal adjunct: *a hero of a sort*, also: *a hero of sorts*.

In the young man who figures as a hero of sorts we get the record of shrewd observation.

Athenaeum 3/10, '14.

"Since it's obvious," said Rodney, "that you can't stand, let alone walk, I had better go on to Montelupo and fetch a carriage of sorts."

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore I ch. 5 p. 70.

1450. The attributive character of *sort of*, *kind of*, also accounts for the way the groups with them are pluralized in colloquial English.

These kind of tools. Sweet.

I can't bear these kind of things. Trollope, *The Way*.

It is a charming talent: all manner of arts and graces proceed from it. Times W. 29/8, 13.

The thoughts on all manner of public affairs of an intelligent, experienced man.

Public Opinion 19/12, 13 p. 704/1.

'Those sort of rules are all gone by now,' said Mr. Arabin.

Trollope, *Barchester Towers* ch. 34.

There are some sort of things that one ought not to stand. Trollope, *The Way*.

"As to two comic articles," he exclaims on one occasion, "or two any sort of articles, out of me, that's the intensest extreme of no-goism." Ward, Dickens p. 100.

1451. The use of this construction is often disapproved of.

Another literary monster is to be found in such phrases as "I don't like *these sort* of people." This usage is patronised by ninety-nine talkers out of a hundred; and, sad to say, is rapidly finding its way into print.

Pilot 22/3, 02 p. 317/2.

The natural tendency of living English, evidently, is to use the construction. Dean Alford (*Queen's English* p. 58) observes:

It must be confessed that the phrases, "*this kind of things*," "*that sort of things*," have a very awkward sound.

1452. It may be added that these plurals with *kind*, *manner*, and *sort* only occurs after *some* pronouns. The New English Dictionary states that *sort of* chiefly occurs after *these* and *those*, rarely after other pronouns. And the plural *manner of things* etc. occurs chiefly after *all*.

1453. The nominal groups with *kind of*, *sort of*, have led to the use of these words as adjuncts to verbal forms (*a*), and to adjectives (*b*). Occasionally *sort of* is quite separated from the word it refers to (*c*).

a. How all the Five Towns kind of sit and sniff at each other. Bennett, Leonora p. 28/2.

If I hadn't sort of known all the time that you were, I wouldn't be here now talking like this.

ib. ch. 7 p. 59/2.

The millionaire whistled a very high note. "Nell!" he said at length. "And you? Do you sort of cling to him?" Bennett, Grand Babylon ch. 29 p. 274.

"I hope she'll go before we do," said Stella-my-niece in my ear. "I sort of feel that she'll try to take Herbert." Punch 4/11, 14.

Father was so disconcerted by the behaviour of Son that he kind of began to clothe his thoughts with language. Snaith, Principal Girl p. 159.

"He's not snoring," she said. "He's sort of groaning. We ought to go in. He must be ill."

Kennedy, Constant Nymph p. 79.

I like to sort of spread my jam.

Clemence Dane, Bill of Div. I in Brit. Pl. p. 649.

b. I never felt so funny, not exactly frightened, you know, but sort of frightened. Sinister Street p. 133.

You look so sort of cosy and confidential in these ferns. ib. p. 316.

Miss Goodrich was kind o' interested.

Vachell, Spragge p. 45.

"It sounds sort of philosophical," said he.

Benson, Blaize ch. 7 p. 132.

I suppose you know that when I started off to India last June year, Margaret and I were sort of engaged... at least I was certainly engaged to her.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 345 f.

c. "Oh, but Keith, wouldn't that be just as bad — I mean, cramp our style sort of, just the same as being married?" Berta Ruck, One of the Chorus (T.) p. 23.

1454. The shifting in the relations of the elements of syntactic groups with *kind of* and *sort of* is also to be observed in other cases.

Some new curtains would make a world of difference,
but she did not know where to get the stuff.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 13 p. 112.

... and no end of other strange creatures.

Sweet, Primer of Spoken Engl. p. 51.

And you're a bit of a botanist too.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. 6 p. 69.

(She) had never given him a moment of uneasiness¹⁾.

Mackenzie, Rich Rel. p. 126.

The theory of the novel has not received a great deal of attention, considering the novel's pride of place.

Times Lit. 13/11, 1924 p. 717/2.

Her house, on the top of a high bare hill among great mountains, was a one-storied group of buildings²⁾...

Lytton Strachey, Books and Char. p. 287.

On the numeratives with *of*, see 818 ff.

1455. The interpretation of the *of*-groups as closely united groups, if not complete units, also permits us to understand the use of the stem form, not the plural, in such cases as *this class of book*.

And it is this quality undoubtedly that makes this whole class of book interesting. Times Lit. 23/12, 15.

His rebels show hardly a trace of the arrogant self-sufficiency which makes that class of person objectionable.

Athenaeum 4/9, 15.

It would be easy to multiply examples of this type of town.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 220.

Accordingly, there are two kinds of chartered town.

Davis, Med. Europe p. 218.

As all evidence is wanting, we can only guess that

1) Compare *a moment's uneasiness*.

2) *One-storied* does not qualify *group* but *buildings*.

the Saxon conquest was achieved by two distinct types of expedition. Trevelyan, Hist. of Engl. ch. 3 p. 35.

1456. When a title of a person is grouped with a geographical name the preposition originally served to make the following proper name into an adjunct, as in *the archbishop of Canterbury*. But the original meaning of the place-name is often forgotten; and in modern analogical titles it is often hardly thought of. The result is that it may be doubtful which of the two nouns is the headword.

The Prince of Wales. The Earl of Derby. The Marquis of Salisbury. Lord Morley of Blackburn.

1457. *Of*-adjuncts are also found after superlatives of adjectives referring to the noun in the adjunct.

The Misses Osborne had the best of governesses.
Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*.

The meaning is clearly partitive in many cases: *the best governess out of all possible governesses*. This partitive meaning is sometimes emphasized by adding *all*:

Dr. Verrall, the most brilliant of all modern critics of Euripides. Murray, *Euripides* p. 8.

Further examples in vol. 3 (1818 ff.). Compare also 1368.

The partitive meaning is often absent, however. The result is that the superlative has the meaning of an absolute superlative.

The absence of the partitive meaning is formally shown when the noun in the *of*-adjunct is in the singular. In such a case the noun in the *of*-adjunct is really the leading element.

1458. Sometimes we have a combination of this construction with the one in which the noun is repeated (see 1433 ff.). The prepositional noun, though usually a

plural class-noun, may be an abstract noun, as in the two last sentences.

Little, indeed, can have escaped Mr. Northup's net; its meshes have not let the smallest of small fry through.
Times Lit. 21/12, '17.

One could easily bombard the superficial student with questions on which he would only be able, on the spur of the moment, to give the vaguest of vague replies.

Times Lit. 29/4, '18.

Plato, in many ways the most Greek of the Greeks.
Times Lit. 23/9, '15.

The clergy were taken from every class of society, from the relations of the king to the humble friar who was the poorest of the poor. Const. Essays p. 334.

Yet, the words were spoken by Samuel Johnson, who has been called the most English of all great Englishmen.
Times Lit. 20/1, '16.

Mr. Balfour talked the soundest of sound common sense last Friday.
Times W. 24/8, '17.

1459. When a noun serves to denote the class to which the idea expressed in the *of*-adjunct belongs it is often difficult to say which is the adjunct, which the leading element.

The ceremony of marriage. The virtue of obedience. The vice of drunkenness. The fact of your meeting him. The circumstance of there being no one near. The hour of eleven.

This construction may be compared with a genitive. Just as in *my father's speech* the genitive denotes the subject of a verbal sentence (*my father* is speaking, or will speak, etc.), the noun in the *of*-adjuncts denotes the subject of a nominal sentence in *the ceremony of marriage* (*marriage* is a *ceremony*). See 833, 1431.

1460. *Of* also serves to make a preceding geographical class-noun into an adjunct of the following proper name.

The town of Rotterdam ; the village of L. ; the kingdom of Holland ; the Isle of Wight.

1461. In these groups, as well as in the partitive ones of 1445 ff., the first noun may come to be a subordinate element.

Kirby was a magnificent figure of a man.

Meredith, Amazing Marriage ch. I p. 5.

Edward I, 'the Greatest of the Plantagenets,' and 'the Hammer of the Scots,' is a fine figure of a King, . . .
Salzman, Engl. Life p. 21.

1462. The subordination of the first noun in such *of*-groups is very evident in the type illustrated below. The noun in the *of*-adjunct takes the classifying indefinite article.

"What a duck of a child," said Madaline.

Sidgwick, Severins ch. 7.

I merely meant to make myself agreeable, — I can't help doing that, — and that goose of a Mr. Coxe seems to have fancied I meant to give him encouragement.

Gaskell, Wives II 270.

Clarence regarded the porch with a hostile air, made no secret that he thought it a fool of a porch.

Wells, Harman p. 2.

'Tis only a lonely rogue's roost of a place.

Phillpotts, Beacon I ch. 4 p. 29.

And the lawyer, scared by the thought, brooded awhile on his own past, groping in all the corners of memory, lest by chance some Jack-in-the-Box of an old iniquity should leap to light there.

Stevenson, Dr. Jekyll p. 30.

The only other occupants of her third class compartment were a friendly looking man . . . and his thin, dried-up, black-clothed cottage woman of an old mother.

Galsworthy, Freeland ch. 28.

We feel sure that nobody but herself could wear such a very modish marvel of a lace boudoir-cap or such a dream of a lace bed-jacket.

Chaplin, New Morality in Mod. Brit. Plays p. 535.

Lottie's weeping died down as she mounted the stairs but the sight of her at the nursery door with swollen eyes and a blob of a nose¹⁾ gave great satisfaction to the S. J.'s²⁾. K. Mansfield, Bliss p. 3 f.

... a lump of a child. ib. p. 1.

I have had three great lumps of children already... ib. p. 62.

The fat creaking body leaned across the gate, and the big jelly of a face smiled. ib. p. 2.

And all this through that interfering prig of a Westcott.
Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 6 § 3 p. 73.

Dr. Prosy and his old hen of a mother.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 9 p. 80.

We waited, and she acknowledged my patience with a jewel of a smile. Arlen, Green Hat ch. 1 § 2 p. 11 f.

1463. Most of the groups of this kind are in common use; but nonce-formations are possible (*a*). It is rare for the prepositional noun to take the definite article (*b*).

a. Above and below, you may hear it wimpling over the stones, an amiable stripling of a river, which it seems absurd to call the Loire.

Stevenson, Travels p. 16.

b. Before her and behind her the river of the wall³⁾ flowed through a champaign of roofs from which towers and spires rose like trees.

Mackenzie, Rich. Rel. ch. 1 p. 11.

1464. *Of* also makes pronouns, especially *something*, into an adjunct of the noun that follows. *Of* is similarly used after *much* and *little*. See 1353 on *something*, 1357 on *somewhat*, and also the sections on the *Conversion of Adjectives*.

1) Compare: a pill box black and shiny outside and red in, holding a blob of wool. Mansfield, Bliss p. 6.

2) i. e. *the Samuel Josephs*, the children of Mrs. Samuel Josephs.

3) i. e. the winding city-wall.

When he recovered he found himself, to his great surprise, something of a hero.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 8 p. 94.

I am something of a socialist.

Quoted Dicey, Law and Opinion p. 272.

The horticulture of windows (in London) is as much of a fine art as the horticulures of the enclosures in London.

Escott, England I 133.

Mowbray's thoughts, too, I could see. He was thinking that Haddon's manner showed too much of the specialist.

Wells, Country p. 166.

Tennyson was too much of the impressionable poet to be able to escape being influenced by the chaotic ferment of a century in which he lived.

R. P. Assoc. Annual (1905) p. 26.

Stella was more of a tie than a companion.

Sinister Street p. 159.

Similarly after *what*. See 1064.

Even so what it contained of ability to vex other people that last hour hung a little heavily upon the enthusiasts.

Sinister Street p. 576.

Note also the agreement of *who of us* with *our* in the following sentence.

... but who of us without much thought and searching could lay our finger right away on the *crack of doom, one fell swoop...* and literally hundreds of other Shakespeareanisms? Collinson, Cont. English p. 41.

1465. *All* and *both*, like the nouns of definite number in 1439, can take *of*, but are also found without.

a. Barbara had been brought up to a great exigency, and it naturally filled all of her mind.

Cotes, Cinderella ch. 13 p. 148.

She half blames Peter for all of this disturbance.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 7 p. 308.

But after all, important as are the subjects of study

and the machinery for pursuing them, all of this is subordinate to the spirit which should direct and inspire the whole. Times Ed. S. 7/9, '16.

I rather wish you wouldn't talk quite so easily about all of that. Sinister Street p. 602.

All of us are learning to comprehend the German national psychology. Times Ed. S. 5/10, '15.

Both of these possibilities must be taken into account.

They were both of them older by a year or more than Michael and Alan. Sinister Street p. 167.

b. From both these dangers she was saved by the Church. Wakeman, Introd. p. 105.

We are all (both) convinced of it.

See further the sections on *all* and *both* in the chapter on *Indefinite Pronouns*: 1209 ff. and 1222 ff.

1466. Closely related to *all* is *whole*, which is used attributively (*the whole year*), but also with an *of*-adjunct (*the whole of that year*); see 1212. The attributive use is the regular one when *whole* qualifies a class-noun with a definite or an indefinite article. The *of*-adjunct is used in the case of class-nouns taking other qualifying pronouns, and in the case of abstract nouns and proper names¹⁾.

The whole of mankind, — of past history, — of Sweden, — of Christendom.

He spent the whole of last winter here.

When the prepositional construction is used with class-nouns accompanied by an article, it is emphatic.

But to-day he saw that the whole of the school was gathered there. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 6 § 3 p. 74.

The character of a vision would determine the whole of a man's career. Lowie, Primitive Religion p. 6.

1) Many of the examples in this section have been borrowed from an article by Dr. Arvid Smith in Moderna Språk for Dec. 1929.

Nouns with *of* and in Apposition 1467. When prepositions turn into conjunctions they are generally used as subordinating conjunctions. When *of* is used in the groups of 1459 f., it corresponds in some respects to a coordinating conjunction. But such groups are frequently unconnected or appositional. This construction is frequent in the case of proper names with some geographical class-nouns: *lake*, *cape*; the nouns *river* and *mount* never take *of*.

Lake Erie; Lake Superior; Lake Geneva; the Lake of Geneva.

The River Thames. Mount Snowdon. Cape Lozo.

The Euphrates river became the eastern boundary of the Roman State. Goodspeed, History p. 345.

1468. In names of buildings, streets and roads, *of* is never used when the proper name precedes the class-noun.

London Bridge. Piccadilly Circus.

Shaftesbury Avenue. Cowley Road. Oxford Street. Christ Church. York Minster. Westminster Abbey.

1469. In some cases an *of*-adjunct competes with the appositional use of nouns.

The empire of Morocco takes its name from the city Morocco founded in 1062.

Margoliouth, Mohammedanism p. 20.

(The Sultan of Turkey) is, however, in virtue of his title *Caliph*, officially head of all the Moslems in the world. ib. p. 17.

The title of Nabob.

The name of poet. The name Tommy Atkins¹⁾.

He had not been in England for many years, not

1) In the first of these two cases *of* is required because of the class-noun character of *poet*.

since the year 1911, and it was now the year of 1921.
H. Walpole, *Wintersmoon* I 17 (T.).

On other uses of appositional nouns, see the chapter on *Word-Groups* in volume 3.

To 1470. In its most independent uses *to* expresses direction in space: *to walk to Leeds*. This has led to the use of *to*-adjuncts as substitutes for indirect objects when their function is not indicated by the order of words or when special emphasis is required: *To whom did you give it? I gave the money to John.*

In present-day English the plain indirect object is not formally distinguished from the plain adjunct of benefit, as in *will you cash me this cheque?* But the difference between the two is real, and the prepositional construction that is parallel to the plain adjunct of benefit takes *for*: *will you cash this cheque for me?*

See volume 3 on the *Simple Sentence*. On the use of *Suspended to*, see vol. 3 on *Syntactic Word-Groups*.

For 1471. *For* has a purely grammatical function when it enables a noun (or pronoun) to express the subject of a verbal stem; see 261 ff.

By 1472. *By* has a grammatical function when it is used to denote the agent (or moving cause) of a participle: *It was done by a good carpenter.*

The agent is usually a person, but not invariably.

Soon after the events of which I gave an account in my last paper, I was summoned home by my father's illness. Gaskell, *Cranford* p. 128.

When the agent is not a person, *through* is very common.

The problem of the mining energies of the megalithic

peoples is forced upon us through examining the distribution of their monuments.

Massingham, Pre-Roman Britain p. 32.

1473. *By* is also used with numerals to express a distributive meaning: *by twos*, etc.; *one by one*. Similarly: *step by step*.

1474. The use of *on* in free adjuncts, both *on, with,* related and absolute, and of *with* and *without* *without* in absolute adjuncts, is of special importance when they are grouped with a verbal ing; see volume 1. The use is not limited to the verbal ing, however, as is shown in the following sentence. The constructions are treated in vol. 3 on the *Simple Sentence*.

The country was apparently peaceful, but, with the Conqueror away, risings broke out.

Hist. of Every-day Things I p. 8.

CONJUNCTIONS

1475. It is usual and convenient to speak of conjunctions as a separate class of words. But, as in the parallel case of prepositions, it must be understood that the term generally denotes an uninflected word that is used in a ‘connective’ function in a given sentence, although it can also be used in other functions, mostly as an adverb, or as a preposition, or as either. A word is called a conjunction when its chief function in a given sentence is:

- (1) to group two sentences or clauses;
- (2) to group two parallel parts of a sentence or clause,
i.e. two subjects, two objects, two attributive adjuncts, etc.

Of course the twofold use might suggest a twofold name; but the same words can generally be used in both functions, so that a common name is preferable.

1476. Some words are used as conjunctions only; such are the interrogative-relative *whether* and *if*, *because*, *although*, *until*, *unless*, *lest*, *and*, *or*. Many more are used as adverbs as well: *when*, and the other interrogative-relative adverbs; *though*, *but*, *once*. Others again are used as prepositions: *for*, *till*. Some words that can be used as conjunctions also occur in the function of adverbs and prepositions: *before*, *after*, *since*.

That is used both as a conjunction and as a demonstrative pronoun, although the two functions may perhaps be looked upon as two independent words, in spite of the formal

identity¹⁾. The relatives *who*, *what*, and *which* are never included among the conjunctions, although they are uninflected and just as much conjunctions as the adverbs and prepositions that can be used conjunctively. And it is this conjunctive character of the relative *who* that explains the difference between it and the interrogative *who* pointed out in 916.

1477. Conjunctions are traditionally defined as *joining* or *connecting* words or sentences. But this definition is really based on the etymology of the word; for conjunctions, so far from connecting, may sometimes be said to separate two words. Thus, if we say that *and* is a conjunction in *a good and safe rule*, because it 'connects' the two attributive words *good* and *safe*, it might be answered that they seem to be even more closely connected when *and* is absent, as in *a good old rule*. Another case of a conjunction separating rather than connecting two elements of a sentence is supplied by adding *and* in the group of predicative adjectives in this sentence: The trees behind were fine, bold, and spreading (Brontë, *Shirley* ch. 11 p. 189). If we said *fine and bold and spreading*, the three adjectives would form less close a group, each element being taken rather as an individual quality, distinct from the others.

It may also occur that a conjunction, although supposed to connect two clauses, is really separated from its clause by an intervening one.

I shall tell him *that*, however many the things you might lie about, you are a George Washington where your precious bric-a-brac is concerned . . .

Rose Macaulay, *The Lee Shore* ch. 2 p. 34.

1) The weak stress of the conjunction affects the vowel, but the demonstrative can be weak-stressed too. Of course, an ordinary speaker is not aware of the identity of the two words; indeed, he never thinks of isolated words at all.

Conjunctions and Adverbs **1478.** It follows from the definition of conjunctions in 1475 that it is not always possible to distinguish between an adverb and a conjunction; for a word may have something of either function. This is often the case with *now*, *only*, *still*, *yet*, *however*, *moreover*, *besides*, *again*, *indeed*; also the anaphoric pronominal adverbs, such as *hence*, *thus*, etc.

Now, Yeobright, having inherited some of these very instincts from the woman before him, could not fail to awaken a reciprocity in her ... Hardy, Native III ch. 2 p. 216.

Peter could not name any one as directly responsible for this state of things, nor could he define his own condition of mind; only he knew that he could not leave the shop. Walpole, Fortitude II ch. 3 § 3 p. 176.

Instead, however, he was the son of John Trent and Son; ... Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 10.

Anyhow, one day Peter tumbled on to the point of his right shoulder and lay on his face, his arm crooked curiously at his side, remarking that he didn't think he was hurt, *only* his arm felt funny and he didn't think he would move it just yet.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 1 p. 3.

The conjunctive character of these adverbs is much clearer when there is no break that separates them from the rest of the clause. The cause of this seems to be that the adverb in this position loses in independence of meaning what it gains in conjunctive force.

Once upon the road¹⁾ an almost unholy desire possessed him not to return. Strand Magazine June 1925 p. 61 7/2.

I know Rodney will be kind to me directly I take to street peddling or any other thoroughly ill-bred profession. Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 3 p. 40.

Conjunctions and Prepositions **1479.** The similarity between conjunctions and prepositions is even greater than between conjunctions and adverbs. Indeed, it is fre-

1) A comma would be useful here, to indicate the rising intonation of *road*.

quently impossible to distinguish the two, unless there are formal indications. It is generally said that prepositions make a noun into an adjunct whereas conjunctions connect parallel parts of a sentence. Thus, *before* is clearly a preposition in *It happened before my time*; and it is clearly a conjunction in *It happened before we lived here*. But it is not always so easy to classify a word like this when it is used in a simple sentence; we may hesitate whether it serves to make a noun into an adjunct or to connect it with a parallel part of the sentence. We have a conjunction *than* evidently in the following sentence, where *than* serves to connect the parallel adjuncts with *for*.

For his mother the Prince's affection was more instinctive than for his father.

Sidney Lee, in Engl. 19th Cent. II p. 3.

In the sentence *I am taller than my brother* we can call *than* a conjunction because it connects *my brother* as a parallel subject to *I*. But we may argue that *my brother* is made by it into an adjunct, so that *than* must be called a preposition. This can be shown by logical analysis, but also by a comparison of other languages, which use a case-form or a prepositional group to express the meaning that in English is expressed by *than*: *He is taller than my brother*, is expressed in many languages by a phrase meaning *taller from my brother*¹⁾.

1480. It could be argued that the distinction between the two classes of words, the conjunction being recognised only when the two elements are parallel, is arbitrary. For no reason has been given why it is only when the two elements are parallel that a word is to be considered a conjunction: even if *than* makes *my brother* into an adjunct in the sentence at the end of 1479, it might be called a conjunction, according

1) Students of Latin and Greek will require no examples.

to 1475, although the same would have to be said for *from* in 'he is taller from my brother', whether expressed by a case-form as in Latin, or a word that is called a preposition as in Greek, and in other languages. If this were done, however, the distinction between prepositions and conjunctions would disappear. There might be little inconvenience in this for students of English; for it has been shown that the formal indications by means of personal pronouns of the first and third persons (*taller than I, taller than me*: 973 ff.) are very slight and doubtful. But in many other languages nouns as well as pronouns differ in form according to the word connecting them with the rest of the sentence, so that in these languages nouns with prepositions and conjunctions are formally distinguished with much greater clearness. English, however, possesses some formal indications, apart from the personal pronouns, which make the distinction of the two classes of words advisable. An important distinction is made by concord; thus we say *John and Mary are going*, but *John is going with Mary*. This sentence also shows word-order as a distinctive mark. And there seems to be another indication, which is peculiar to English: the use of the verb stem instead of the ing, as shown in 368; we must also interpret *instead of* as a conjunction in the following sentence.

(The house) had been to her as desolate as if they had gone over her head in the shadowless and trackless wastes of Sahara, *instead of* in the blooming garden of an English home. Brontë, Shirley ch. 23.

If, however, we call *instead of* a conjunction in these cases, it is necessary to apply the same term to the particle *to* as used with a verb stem. And we shall also have to classify the groups *in order to* and *so as to*, which are used with verb stems, as conjunctions. There is no objection to this; but it must be acknowledged that the definition of 1475 does not apply to these cases, for the parts connected

by *instead (of)*, *to*, *so as to*, *in order to*, cannot be called parallel parts of the sentence.

Even when there are no formal indications, the context may compel us to distinguish a word as a preposition in one case, as a conjunction in the other. Thus, *like* is a conjunction in the following sentences.

We will take, then, a great and famous abbey like Glastonbury, with its many manors of varied soil, but more fertile than the average.

Coulton, Medieval Village ch. 4 p. 35.

She, like Peter, was oddly not herself to-day.

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 17 p. 250.

The conjunctional character may be contrasted with the prepositional use in a case like: *He built a monastery like Glastonbury*. In this sentence, however, *like* may also be interpreted as an adjective. (cf. *very like G.*).

The conjunctional character of *like* is undoubtedly shown when it introduces a subordinate clause, as in this sentence.

Yes, of course, — like we should.

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 9 p. 79.

This use of *like* is usually disapproved of by purists¹⁾ and is obediently avoided by most writers, less consistently by speakers.

1481. When a preposition is used in a free adjunct, it often resembles a conjunction. This is the case in absolute adjuncts connected with the rest of the sentence by *with* or *without*; see 1474. We have a similar case in the following sentence, where *from ... to* is very much the same as the conjunctional group *as well as*.

1) The reason which they condescend to adduce is that '*like* is a preposition, and *as* is a conjunction'. Fundamentally, these would-be lawgivers assume the existence of a body of rules governing a language, in other words the existence of grammar, before the existence of human speech.

She was a year younger than Peter, and they had all their lives gone shares in their possessions, from guinea-pigs to ideas (cf. *in guinea-pigs as well as ideas*).

Rose Macaulay, *The Lee Shore* ch. 3 p. 38.

He had just recovered from an attack of it on the day when he was having tea at the White City, and he looked a weak and washed-out rag, with sunken blue eyes smiling out of a very white face. ib. p. 40.

1482. A rigid classification of words as conjunctions, distinct from other parts of speech, is evidently impossible. It will be instructive, however, to consider the varying degrees of connectiveness or conjunctiveness in the classes of words discussed, and some other parts of speech that are not generally grouped with them.

A very slight conjunctiveness has been pointed out in the adverbs that are separated from the rest of the sentence by a break, such as *only*, etc.; see 1478. The conjunctiveness is really dependent on the position of these adverbs; it will be observed that they open the sentence. There is some conjunctive force in these words when used in the middle of a sentence, but much less: *I still think you ought to have answered him immediately.*

We find a similar conjunctiveness in all anaphoric pronouns, again more clearly when they open the sentence than in other cases¹⁾; for examples, see the sections on the personal pronouns of the third person, the demonstrative pronouns, and the definite article.

1483. The conjunctive force of the adverbs such as *once*, *directly*, as illustrated in the quotations at the end of 1478, is similar to that of the interrogative-relative adverbs, and

1) Any part of the sentence that opens it may serve to continue the thought of the preceding sentence, and so far serve as a connective; see vol. 3 on the structure of the sentence, especially word-order.

of the same class of pronouns. We ascend a step in conjunctiveness when we pass to words that are used as conjunctions only, though they express a clear independent meaning, such as *but*, *as*. Conjunctions that introduce clauses only, such as *because*, *if*, are again a step forward. When a conjunction that introduces clauses only expresses no meaning at all, as in the case of *that*, it reaches the highest rung of the ladder of conjunctiveness.

The general conclusion would seem to be that the conjunctiveness of a word is in inverse ratio to its semantic individuality.

Subordinating and Coordinating 1484. The definition of conjunctions in 1475 states that they may connect two sentences or two clauses. In the latter case the two clauses may be parallel, as in the two clauses with *because* in this sentence connected by *and*:

And Lucy, of course, had accepted him as an intimate friend from the first, because Peter had said she was to, and because, as she remarked, he was so astonishing nice to look at and to listen to.

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 3 p. 41.

When the conjunctions are used in this way we call them *coordinating*.

It has also been shown that the conjunctions can connect two parallel parts of a sentence; these are always coordinating. But it has already been made clear that the two parts connected by some conjunctions, such as *but* and *as*, are not really parallel (1479). In such a case, if we do not or cannot call the word a preposition, we must speak of a *subordinating* conjunction. The term is generally, if somewhat arbitrarily, restricted to those conjunctions that introduce a clause which is logically dependent upon another. The leading clause may be the main clause of a compound sentence (*a*), or it may be a subordinate clause itself (*b*).

a. The only thing in careers *that* I can fancy at the moment is art dealing.

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 2 p. 32.

b. He lacks your discerning eye, Margery. But such is his eagerness that he is determined to have good things, *even though* he doesn't know them *when* he sees them. ib. p. 33.

In the last sentence, the clause with *even though* is subordinate to the preceding clause, and is at the same time the leading clause of the one opening with *when*.

Some conjunctions can be freely used to connect sentences or clauses as well as parts of a sentence; such are the subordinating *as*, *than*; and the coordinating *and*, *or*.

A good many are used only to introduce sentences or clauses: *whether*, *if*, *when*, *although*, *whether*; see the sections on *Free Adjuncts* in vol. 3. The chief conjunctions that are exclusively used to connect sentences or clauses are *that* and *for*.

The distinction of coordinating and subordinating conjunctions has been shown to be based on the analysis of the sentences. The distinction can be fully treated only, consequently, in connection with sentence-structure; see volume 3.

Form 1485. After we have dealt with the functions of conjunctions we must make some observations on their *form*, denoting by that word their relation to other parts of speech. We have seen that a good many conjunctions are at the same time adverbs or prepositions, or both; others, again, are not usually classed as conjunctions, as the anaphoric pronouns generally, and especially the relatives. A smaller number of conjunctions are formally identical with nouns and verbs. These cases are important because they show how words may become conjunctive through their function in the sentence, which often leads to a shifting, the word being logically intelligible as a member of the leading clause,

but understood by speakers as part of the subordinate clause.

1486. In the conjunctive use of nouns we can distinguish nouns with a pronoun or article, whether in a prepositional adjunct (*a*) or not (*b*), and the prepositional nouns without a defining word (*c*).

a. But Old Jack was working up to a fiction to serve a purpose. *By the time* he had succeeded in believing the fog was lifting he would be absolved from his promise not to go out in it.

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 23 p. 241.

By the time they had reached the Abbey wood Guy had made up his mind . . .

Mackenzie, *Guy and Pauline* p. 94¹⁾.

By the time the second bottle of champagne was emptied, I felt as if I had been drinking liquid fire.

Collins in *Selected Short Stories II* p. 153.

b. You promised to keep away. Why did you come back *the moment* they arrived?

W. Somerset Maugham, *Brit. Plays* p. 608.

But *the moment* the war broke out he began to worry about the waste it all was.

Cotes, *Cinderella* ch. 1 p. 7.

My Father and Mother never could come to a clear understanding about what had disagreed with my Father *the day* he lost his situation at Fothergill's.

de Morgan, *Vance* ch. 1.

The same warmth glowed up in her *the moment* her eyes opened. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 14.

1) When the clause with *by the time* opens the whole sentence, the rising intonation at the end of the first sentence clearly shows its character as a subordinate clause. Another indication is provided by the use of the present tense for the future, as in adverb clauses generally:

I shall be ready *by the time* you are. Compare 160.

The group-character also affects the phonetic form: Sweet (Element, no. 31) transcribes [bəðə taim]; compare *because*.

Last time I took it (viz. a medicine) I went to bed and slept it off. Wells, Country of the Blind p. 454.

Every time the rays of a passing lamp splashed the brougham Jasmine felt that she ought to say something.
Mackenzie, Rich Relatives ch. 5 p. 121.

To me, *the way* I see it, it looks as though certain things were decreed to happen...

Arlen, Green Hat ch. 2 p. 49.

... but that is because of the nature of the work, and there's never, *the way* I see it, much more than a pen behind it. ib.

"Well," said Peggy hopefully, "the boarders we have now really do pay their rent *the way* they never did in Venice..."

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 12 p. 177.

c. *In case* this way of putting it should cause uneasiness, let me add that I am not a criminal.

De Morgan, Vance ch. 10.

1487. Of course these same nouns may be used in their function of adverb adjuncts to some word in the leading clause, as in the following sentence. See the sections on the use of nouns as adverb adjuncts in the chapter on *The Simple Sentence* (vol. 3).

The next time Guy came to the Rectory, he brought with him the manuscript.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 279.

Frequently a twofold analysis is possible. In the following sentences the noun may (and probably should) be interpreted as a conjunctive word, but it can also be looked upon as an element of the main clause.

The king motioned Inglesant to approach him, and the Jesuit explained *the reason* he had been sent for.

Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 9.

At the time this history commences, Robert Moore had lived but two years in the district.

Brontë, Shirley ch. 2.

1488. The nouns that are turned into conjunctions are always introduce subordinate clauses. For it is their shifting from the main clause into the subordinate clause that causes them to change their character. When such a word has once become isolated from its use as a noun, however, it may become a coordinating conjunction. This has evidently happened in the case of *because*, which is also formally isolated from the other prepositional nouns by the form *be-* instead of the living preposition *by*. Its relation to the noun *cause* is completely forgotten, so that it can even open a compound sentence.

Because he had been there very often before he knew every flagstone in the floor and every rafter in the roof. Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 1 p. 3.

1489. The conjunctive character of these nouns is sometimes indicated formally by the addition of *that*.

By the time that Wildeve had reached her name the blankness with which he had read the first half of the letter intensified to mortification.

Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 7.

When a conjunctive noun is not accompanied by any preposition or a defining word it is isolated from its noun-functions and is looked upon as another word. Such is the case with *while*.

1490. The verbal forms that are used conjunctively are either characterized (by the suffixes *-ed* or *-ing*) or not: *provided*, *supposing*, *suppose*. In the case of the characterized forms it is generally clear that the origin of the use is in free adjuncts; the stem form as a conjunction is a development of the imperative use; this interpretation is possible as long as the sentence is simple, but in compound sentences the stem is a real conjunction.

His steps fell slower and slower as he passed the road. One hot hand was clutching Parlow's note and in his throat there was a sharp pain that made it difficult to swallow, and his eyes were burning. Suppose he never went home at all. Supposing he went off to Stephen's farm! — it was a long way and he might lose his way in the snow...

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 2 p. 19¹⁾.

Peter looked doubtful. He was nervous. Suppose Hilary met Urquhart again... Dire possibilities opened.

Rose Macaulay, *The Lee Shore* ch. 1 p. 15.

My dear young lady, suppose St. Francis d'Assisi²⁾ had said that, we shouldn't be hearing to-day of St. Francis. Galsworthy, *Swan Song* I ch. 1 p. 15.

1491. Many conjunctions appear frequently in correlative groups; such are *both ... and*, *either ... or*, *neither ... nor*, *what with ... and*, all of them coordinating. A similar group is formed by *any more than* when introducing a subordinate clause; observe the shifting of *any more* from the main clause into the subordinate one.

He had no fame at any game; he did not row; he was neither a sporting nor, in any marked degree, a reading man.

Rose Macaulay, *The Lee Shore* I ch. 2 p. 26.

Nobody commented, any more than they would have commented on the fact of mushrooms coming in autumn or snowdrops in spring. Hardy, *Native* II ch. 6 p. 168f.

1492. The conjunctive function of adverbs, including the pronominal adverbs, is frequently indicated by the addition of *as*, and of *ever*. We thus find the correlative group *as soon as*, *as long as*, etc.; also *whereas*; *whoever*, etc., *whenever*, *wherever*, *however*; also *as soon as ever*, *before ever*, etc.;

1) Compare the similar use of *if*.

2) Sic.

see 1101f. It must be added that the addition of *ever* rather serves to make the groups indefinite than conjunctive.

The most important word to make adverbs into conjunctions is *that*; we find it in subordinating groups only: *but that*, *except that*, *now that*, *so that*. The first three are also used conjunctively without *that*; this also applies to *only that*, *how that*.

'Why can't you do it as well as others?'

'I don't know, except that there are many things other people care for which I don't....'

Hardy, Native III ch. 2 p. 216.

But her face was beautiful — none the less that it was sad and pale — in the glow as she brought the embers together.

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 3 p. 98.

She read Jesse vividly and knew how that he too dwelt in the past.

E. Phillpotts, The Secret Woman II ch. 4 p. 147.

He has a long story about his grievances, and how that you never rested till you got him chucked from the mill. Annie S. Swan, The Stepmother ch. 14 p. 161.

He told his friend how that the whole idea of the engagement and wedding was — well, something so quiet as to be barely discernible.

Berta Ruck, The Unkissed Bride (T.) p. 56.

Something like a castle in miniature, only that its windows were modern.

An outwardly similar group is *in that*; it is clear from the meaning of this conjunctive group, however, that the first element is the preposition *in*, not the adverb. Although the whole group forms part of the subordinate clause the connection of *in* and the dominant word of the main clause is often evident.

The idea of Empire did more harm than good, in that it effectually prevented either a real kingdom or

Germany or a real kingdom of Italy from coming into existence in the Middle Ages. Oman, Conquest p. 443.

1493. Some prepositional groups with a pronoun are used conjunctively; some take *that*. Such are *for all (that)*, *for aught (without that)*. See 1217.

But these fossils (i. e. old men) see more than they hear sometimes; and this old Major, for all he was so silent, must have noticed many little things...

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 6 p. 50.

And John could not help knowing, too, that she was still deeply in love with him for all that they had been married two years. Galsworthy, Swan Song III ch. 5 p. 233.

1494. The treatment of individual conjunctions with a clear meaning is most usefully left to the dictionary, apart from what seems necessary in the chapters on *Sentence-Structure* in the third volume. But, as in the case of prepositions, it seems advisable to make some remarks on those conjunctions that have no distinct meaning at all, and are consequently used in what may be called a grammatical function. Such conjunctions are *that*, *and*; less so *as* and *but*, because they have retained more of an independent meaning.

1495. The conjunction *that* is subordinating; it does not express any relation of meaning between the two clauses, and can consequently be used in all kinds of clauses: noun clauses (*a*), attributive clauses (*b*), appositional (*c*) and adverb (*d*) clauses. As all these clauses will be fully treated in the last volume, it is not necessary to do more here than to illustrate this statement.

a. Not for a moment did it seem at all strange to Peter that Urquhart should have had this knowledge and given no sign till now.

Rose Macaulay, The Lee Shore ch. 1 p. 11.

The young lady was silent, seeming to recognise that she was not in the presence of a conversationalist.

Galsworthy, Swan Song (T.) I ch. 4 p. 31.

b. She could follow every word that the ramblers uttered. Hardy, Native II ch. 3 p. 140.

'You were not kind to me,' she writes one evening that sir Ralph had dined out. Mem. Verney Fam. IV p. 40.

The gull that flew high above the green waste of white-flecked waters was whiter still against the inky blue of the cloud-curtain that had disallowed the day, and the paler vapour-drifts that paused and changed and lost themselves and died . . .

de Morgan, Somehow Good ch. 44 p. 480.

c. The defence that she did not really want to see him, that his presence might bring on a bad attack, might excite her, was no real defence.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 79.

d. Madeline said nothing to contradict this — all the more readily perhaps that she was not prepared to supply the real reason.

de Morgan, A Likely Story ch. 9 p. 251.

And 1496. Just as *that* is the most important subordinating conjunction with an associative function without expressing the nature of this association, *and* is used associatively as a coordinating conjunction, both to connect (or separate) elements of one sentence and independent sentences or clauses. Its uses will be dealt with in the chapters on *Syntactic Word-groups* and on *Sentence-Structure* in the third volume.

As 1497. Conjunctional *as* is weak-stressed, and usually [əz], but sometimes [æz], especially at the beginning of the sentence. It is used both in main clauses and in subordinate clauses; its meaning is the relative counterpart to demonstrative *so*, although the comparison is sometimes secondary and occasionally quite gone.

1498. The comparative meaning is clear in main clauses, as appears from these examples. There is always a correlative, to express equality, either *as* or *so*, in negative sentences, and in what may be called an intensive function.

Mary has been as good as gold.

It is not so well done as at first.

Do it as well as possible.

Be so good as to come.

The word has the same meaning in many subordinate clauses, both attributive (*a*) and adverbial (*b*). Attributive clauses usually contain the correlative *such* and *same*; adverbial clauses the correlatives *as* and *so*.

a. And if any other poor man has got such a wife as she was, you may be quite sure that he would be glad to be rid of her.

Trollope, Last Chron. II ch. 67 p. 252.

That night, such a frost ensued as we had never dreamed.

Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 42 p. 288.

Every great writer feels and loves the feeling that he is one of a great company who have lived in all lands and in all ages, that he has to speak of the same human life as his masters spoke of. Times Lit. 23/9, '15.

It would be beating the wind to criticize the economics of the Middle Ages if we did not see in operation exactly the same error as influenced the minds of men then.

Times Ed. S. 4/1, '16.

b. Do it as well as you can.

The committee was not so constituted as he expected.

The correlative *such* is not always used, at least in literary English, when the noun has emphatic stress.

And the struggle over the Naval Bill in the Parliament of 1912—13 has put an accent on Imperial issues in Canada as no election and no political struggle has done since Confederation. Everyman, 16/5 1913.

1499. The conjunction is also used to introduce a predicative adjunct to the subject or object of a sentence.

a. He was often ill as a child.

The room had been arranged with a view to dancing, the large oak table having been moved till it stood as a breastwork to the fireplace.

Hardy, Native II ch. 6 p. 166.

b. I look upon him as my truest friend.

1500. The clauses depending upon a noun with *same* or *such* in the main clause (1498) have been classed as attributive, although the clause seems to qualify the adjectival *same* or *such*, and would consequently be an adverb clause. But in reality the clause rather defines the noun; in correlation with *same* the clause often serves to express identity rather than comparison, and *such* in these cases often classifies rather than expresses comparison. These meanings are clearly intended in the following sentences.

Michael and Alan did not talk much; indeed, such conversation as took place during the meal came from the landlady. Sinister Street p. 775.

He stared before him with an expression of such unutterable nothingness as by sheer nebulosity acquired a sinister and menacing force.

Sylvia and Michael p. 291.

1501. The interpretation of the clauses of 1498 *a* and 1499 as attributive is borne out by the fact that they can also take a relative pronoun, or the general subordinating conjunction *that*, as will be shown in the chapter on *Sentence-Structure* (vol. 3). We have a similar use of the conjunction in the following sentence.

Harry had seen many springs before, but never as now had he felt it so good to be alive.

Freeman, Joseph ch. 8 p. 60.

This use is practically identical with *as* in what may be called continuative clauses. These clauses may have end-position (*a*) or mid-position (*b*) in the sentence.

a. I will first introduce our father, as seems suitable.
Cotes, Cinderella ch. 1 p. 5.

Molly said nothing, as became her age and position.
Gaskell, Wives I ch. 2 p. 22.

b. Although, as has been said, she affected extreme poverty, she was known to be rich.

Peard, Madame p. 28.

Whether, as is asserted, he beat time with his foot, I cannot say. Eliot, Essays p. 122.

He (Thomas Arnold) was elected therefore; received, as was fitting, priest's orders; became, as was no less fitting, a Doctor of Divinity; and in August, 1828, took up the duties of his office.

Lytton Strachey, Em. Vict. p. 177.

Yet sometimes — as one can imagine happening with him in actual conversation — his utterances took the form of a half-soliloquy. ib. p. 292.

1502. *As* is also used in clauses referring to the verbal (*a*) or nominal (*b*) predicate of a preceding sentence. In the case of a verbal predicate we may find *to do* in the *as*-clause.

a. Here mother came to my rescue, as she always loved to do. Blackmore, Lorna Doone ch. 30 p. 199.

He had no strong sympathy with Mr. Crawley, as had others. Trollope, Last Chronicle ch. 47.

b. All the Dominions except Australia were represented, as was India. Times W. 4/1, '18.

I saw that his face and head were wet with water, as were mine. Hope, Zenda ch. 4.

My ideas of the duties I was to perform were very vague, as were also my ideas of Ireland generally.

Trollope, Autobiogr. ch. 4 (I 81).

We are not particularly concerned, as Livy was, to choose our documents from illustrious exemplars.

Times Lit. 16/3, 22.

But in this matter the man of culture is just like the vulgar herd, as he would call them.

Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

1503. A special case of the use of the conjunction in the preceding section is that after an ing used as an attributive adjunct to a noun. The verb of the ing is referred to by vicarious *do* (*a*). We have a similar construction, but naturally without vicarious *be* (*b*), when the *as*-clause refers to a predicative adjective (or participle).

a. The crop is of immense value, forming as it does the staple export of the southern states. Times, 1915.

A note on the event, from which a passage may be borrowed, giving as it does a lively idea of the great poet-novelist at home. Jerrold, Meredith p. 34.

b. The illuminating generalizations of Maitland, based as they were upon the soundest scholarship and the most diligent investigation, inspired other students.

Hearnshaw, Municipal Records p. 12.

To us, familiar as we are with political organisations extending over enormous territories, it is a mere matter of political convenience.

Gardiner and Mullinger, Introd. p. 6.

These clauses express cause or reason, which is really the result of the relation of the attributive ing or participle and the noun.

1504. The conjunction *as* is sometimes used in clauses expressing a contrast to the main clause, so that the *as*-clause may be defined as concessive. The comparative origin of the construction is sometimes to be perceived (*a*), but this is by no means always the case (*b*).

a. Poor as they were they had won the general respect of the neighbourhood.

b. Thus the chapters on art, excellent as they are,
seem out of place. Times Lit. 15/6, '16.

But stern as his rule was, it gave peace to the land.
Green, Short Hist. p. 88.

Sketch as it is, the book is no mere compilation.
Athenaeum.

1505. The construction of the preceding section may also express cause or reason, thus resembling the clauses of 1503 in their meaning, not in their structure.

Amid all disaster, London became the centre of the nation's defence: so that when Milton was searching Old English history for subjects for poetry, this struck him, loyal Londoner as he always was, as an heroic theme. Chambers, England before the Norman Conquest p. XI.

These books have moved and excited us; and we are anxious, strangers as we are to their habits of thought, to know something about the men who wrote them.

Times Lit. 20/12, 28 p. 997/2.

1506. The meaning of *as* is evidently comparative in clauses of manner, as in *Do as you like*. But these clauses give rise to a type of concessive clause with front-position of the verb stem, as described in 188, so that a single quotation will suffice here.

'You know you can't do otherwise, for all your moods and changes', she answered defiantly. 'Say what you will; try as you may; keep away from me all you can — you will never forget me.'

Hardy, Native I ch. 9 p. 101.

1507. No trace of the comparative meaning is left when *as* is used to open adverb clauses of time (*a*) and reason (*b*).

This thought occurred to me as I was watching the procession.

As you are not ready, we must go without you.

As and So 1508. The uses of *as* are often parallel to those of demonstrative *so*. This parallelism is very clear when *as* is used in its comparative meaning, but also when it is used predicatively. The construction of 1502 f. shows *as* in a function that is similar to demonstrative *so* in 1145 ff. It seems unnecessary to work out the parallelism in detail here.

But 1509. *But* can be used in simple sentences, also as a coordinating conjunction, and as a subordinating conjunction to introduce a clause.

In simple sentences the conjunction *but* is not easily to be distinguished from adverbs; it may express:

- (1) 'only', as in *She is but a child.*
- (2) 'except', as in *They are all wrong but he.* See also 974 f.
- (3) 'than', after comparatives and similar words, as in *There remains no more but to thank you for your courteous attention; It is nothing else but laziness.*

1510. As a conjunction connecting sentences *but* may express a restriction of a preceding coordinate statement, as in *You were right but you should not have said anything about it.*

As a subordinating conjunction *but* may introduce:

- (1) attributive clauses defining a noun in a negative sentence; the antecedent noun has the function of the subject of the clause.

Not a paper reaches us from Russia but contains an account of some new educational enterprise.

Times Ed. S. 29/5, '19.

Few readers but will be astonished to find that the field should be so rich and wide. Times Lit. 25/1, '18.

There are few thinking people but realize the great

war as the death-agony of an old order, the birth-travail
of a new. Times Lit. 10/9, 15.

Colburn ... was too clever to need a magazine; not
a living publisher but would have to yield to him in the
gentle art of puffing. ib. 20/4, 17.

(2) adverb and object clauses. These two kinds are here grouped together because a distinction is necessarily arbitrary and meaningless. The leading clause is always negative just as in the preceding case.

Justice was never done but someone complained.
Who knows but he may hear of it?

1511. When the negative noun that may be said to be defined by a *but*-clause is not the subject of the subordinate clause, the attributive character of the clause is so little marked that it may be interpreted as an adverb clause (*a*). The same can be said of attributive clauses when the noun is referred to by a personal pronoun as a subject of the clause (*b*).

a. Scarcely a week passes but the association is consulted by private landowners or by public authorities.

b. There was never a Samson so strong but he met his Delilah. Hobbes, Emotions I ch. 4.

1512. The subordinating character of *but* is sometimes emphasized by adding *that*; see 1492. It occurs:

(1) in the sense of *except that*; compare 1509, 2.

Each would have done the same by the other but that they lacked the courage.

(2) in a sense very similar to that of 1511.

He is not such a fool but that he can see that.

I do not think it possible but that some will agree with me.

1513. A less frequent group-conjunction is *but what*.

Not a mood of his but what found a ready sympathiser in Margaret; not a wish of his that she did not strive to forecast, and to fulfil.

Gaskell, North and South ch. 41 p. 364.

Not a soul in the auditorium or on the stage but what lived consummately during these minutes.

Bennett, Leonora ch. 6.

Therefore we seldom took a walk together but what we were stoned by boys in the street.

Davies, Super-Tramp ch. 21 p. 181.

1514. In dealing with the meanings of the conjunction *as* an attempt has been made to show most of its uses as a development of its comparative sense. No such attempt has been made in the case of *but* because its various meanings are not connected but isolated. The result of this isolation (indeed its cause as well) is that *but* is not so strong and live an element of present-day English, and several of its uses tend to be restricted to literary English, i. e. they are on the road that will ultimately lead to their disappearance. This may be said of the uses in 1509, 1 and 3; 1510, 2; the use of *but what* may be considered dialectal by some, although it is not corrected away by editors and writers.

ARCHAIC AND LITERARY ENGLISH

VERBS

Forms

1515. The English verb has two inflectional suffixes that are exclusively used in literary or archaic style:

- (1) [-(i)st] in the second person singular of the present tense, and of the preterite;
- (2) [-(i)p] in the third person singular of the present tense.
 - a. Present: [kʌmɪst] *comest*.
 - Preterite: [kɔːldst, lɛndst, nildst] *calledst, learnedst, kneeledst.*
 - b. [kʌmɪp] *cometh.*

1516. The vowel of the two suffixes is sometimes dropped in the present tense, especially when the metre requires it¹⁾. The preterite frequently has the suffix [ɪd] instead of [d,t], both in poetry and in the reading of the Bible and the Liturgy. With the suffix -st the ending is [-ɪdst] in all regular verbs. In the preterites of irregular verbs usage varies between [ɪst] and [st]: [bædst, swærɪst] *badst, swarest*; both forms in [brɔːtɪst, brɔːtst] *brought(e)st*; [sedɪst, sedst] *saidest, saidst*; [kast, kastɪdst] *cast, castedst*; [maɪtst, maɪtɪst] *mightst, mightest*; [sɔːst, sɔːst] *sawest, sawst.*

1) [seɪp] in Wyld, *Teaching of Reading* p. 79; [seɪst] in Montgomery, *Types of Standard English* p. 19.

Some auxiliaries have irregular forms which it is convenient to enumerate here.

To be has special suppletive forms for the second person singular :

Present tense: [at] *art*, as well as [biist] *beest*.

Preterite: [wost, wet] *wast, wert*, as well as [we(r)] *were*.

To do as a full verb has the usual special forms: [duist, duib] *doest, doeth*; but as an auxiliary it has the corresponding [dast, dab] *dost, doth*.

Note [dearist, deest] *darest*.

To have has the forms [hast, hab] *hast, hath*.

The auxiliaries *can, may, shall, will* have no special form for the third person; the archaic forms for the second person singular are [kanst, falt, wilt] *canst, shalt, wilt*.

The preterites *could, might, should, would, ought* take the suffixes [-ist, -st] in the same way as the regular preterites. *Must* is invariable.

1517. A number of verbs have additional forms that are restricted to archaic English; they are reminiscences of earlier English rather than elements of the language of the present day.

Many verbs with *o* in their preterite, such as *got, spoke, swore*, have archaic preterites with *a*. These are *get, break, drive, speak; bear, tear, swear, wear*, with the preterites *gat, brake, drave, spake; bare, tare, sware, ware*.

Note further the preterites *slang, slank*, (stems: *sling, slink*); the participles *forgot, trod* (stems: *forget, tread*).

The preterites and participles to the stems *understand, write, build*, are also *understood, writ, builded*. Help forms *holp*, part. *holpen*. Further, there are the participles *paven, shapen, shaven*, mostly used as attributive adjectives.

The verb *to clothe* is regular in spoken English. In literary English the preterite and participle are also *clad*. In spoken English there is the adjective *clad*.

She was clad about the shoulders in a mantle of foreign style and pattern.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 4 p. 25.

The verbs *to distract*, *reach*, *work* have the regular forms *distracted*, *reached*, *worked*. But in archaic English there are also the forms *distraught*, *raught*, *wrought*. In spoken English there is the attributive adjective *wrought*.

1518. In the preceding pages archaic forms have been enumerated of verbs that are used in common English. There are also a number of verbs that are restricted to literary, most of them rather to archaic, English in all their forms. These will now be mentioned.

beget; begot, begat; begotten, begot.

The preterite *begat* occurs in the Bible.

cleave; cleft 'to divide'.

This verb also has the regular preterite and participle [klivd] *cleaved*. There is also a preterite *clove*, and participle *cloven*. In the Bible we find the preterite *clave*; the participle *clove* occurs in poetry.

There is also another verb *to cleave* 'to stick to'; this is regular. But in literary English the preterite *clave* is also found.

The sections into which our society is cleft.

Our swift frigate cleaved through the water.

He struck the earth with his feet, and it clove asunder, and swallowed him.

He clave the rocks in the wilderness. Psalm 78, 16.

I cleaved to a cause that I felt to be pure and true.

Many of the Danes clave to their ancient worship.

His tongue clave to his mouth.

bereave; bereft.

The verb is also regular: *bereaved*, especially in reference

to the loss of relatives by death. In reference to other possessions (nearly exclusively immaterial) *bereft* is the more usual form.

The accident which had bereaved the father of his child.

Bereft of hope, life, etc.

Here he lurked about, like a spectre, among the scenes of former power and prosperity, now bereft of home, of family and friend.

Washington Irving, *The Sketch-Book* p. 306.

The treachery and desertion of many of his followers is said to have desolated his heart, and to have bereaved him of all further comfort. id. p. 307.

The participle *reft* is not frequent.

It was now reft for a time from the southern province.

Wakeman, *Introd.* p. 63.

bide; bode, bid; bid, bidden.

abide; abode.

These two verbs are also used with the regular inflection: *bided, abided*.

They held their peace and bided their time.

... whose name abode on Northumbrian tongues as the embodiment of good and just government.

One of the few Southerners in public life who abided faithful to the Constitution when the battle of secession began.

lade; laded; laded, laden.

These are the forms used in the meaning 'to put the cargo on board a ship'. It should be noted, however, that the participial adjective *laden* is also used in reference to other things: *a tree laden with fruit*.

seethe; sod.

The verb is also regular: *seethed*.

rive; rived; riven.
shrive; shrove; shriven.

The regular form *shrived* is also found. The verb is obsolete, spoken English using *to confess*.

1519. A few isolated verbal forms may finally be mentioned which occur in highly artificial, and consequently, occasionally in jocular English.

(1) hight: *is called, was called*, also used as a participle:

Lo! there entered then into the church the Reverend Teacher.

Father he hight and he was in the parish;

Longfellow, *Children of the Lord's Supper*.
Certes, at Pisa Zeus is sovereign hight.

Two Odes of Pindar, transl. Symons.
Eng. Rev. Oct. '13, p. 325.

(2) yclept: *called* (participle):

Don Juan saw that microcosm on stilts,
Yclept the Great World.

Byron, *Don Juan XII* 56.

(3) quoth: *said* (pret.), used with nouns, or with pronouns of the first and third persons, in direct quotations.

"Last night?" quoth Lady Jocelyn.

Meredith, *Harrington* ch. 45 p. 450.

Use of the Forms

1520. Literary English not only differs from common Standard English in the possession of the verbal forms that are peculiar to it and have been enumerated in the preceding sections, but also in the use of some verbal forms that it has in common with the ordinary language of every-day life. It will be most convenient to deal with all these uses in the same order as in the first volume. We shall deal with the following forms:

- (1) the preterites of a number of auxiliaries;
- (2) the forms in *[-(i)st]* and *[(i)p]*;
- (3) the plain stem;
- (4) some auxiliaries.

Preterites 1521. It has been shown that the modal use of the preterites is generally restricted to subordinate clauses (see 37 ff.) and that the preterites *could*, *might*, *should*, *would*, are found as an irrealis in main clauses (656 c, 669 f., 697 ff., 719 ff.). In literary English we also find *must*, *need*, *ought*, and *were*¹⁾ in this function.

There were few passers in the Rue St. Antoine; and our party, which earlier in the day must have attracted notice and a crowd, crossed unmarked.

Weyman, Red Robe.

If there were no domestic servants each of us must wait upon his own bodily needs. Daily News.

Anything more transparent than the incognito of the author of this entertaining book were hard to discover.

Athenaeum March 7, 1908 p. 280/1.

He looked grave; silence or speech — which were better for her? Either, he now saw, would give her pain.

Allen, Mistletoe p. 119.

It were better, after all, to turn about and go whither you should have gone at first.

Oxf. and Camb. Rev. n°. 10 p. 124.

1522. The use of the modal preterite *had* with a plain stem in main clauses has been treated in 555. But the modal *had* with a participle to form a verbal group is restricted to literary English, and has not been illustrated in the first volume.

If you hadn't gone to Strelsau, you and I and Fritz had been in heaven by now. Hope, Zenda.

1) In all persons.

Mrs. Doria, an amiable widow, had surely married but for her daughter Clare.

Meredith, Feverel ch. 13 p. 84.

Possibly the pride even of Richard Feverel had been swamped if the act of composition were easy at such a time. ib. ch. 14 p. 92.

ib. ch. 14 p. 92.

Fortunately Constance was passing in the corridor, otherwise Sophia had been found guilty of a great breach of duty. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 3.

Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 3 § 3.

1523. The preterites *could*, *should*, *did*, *were*, and *had* (whether used as a verb of full meaning or as an auxiliary of the perfect), are used in adverb clauses of condition without a conjunctive word.

Imagine the feelings of Addison, could his shade revisit the earth, gazing down upon what once were the fields and woods of his "Old Kensington."

Escott, England I 132.

Should fortune favour us, we may hope to drive the enemy still further back. Times W. 9/3, 17.

As [Bohun] lay there he thought of what he would do did Markovitch really go off his head.

Walpole, Secret City p. 404.

Had Mr. Redmond not been detained in Ireland by critical sittings of the Irish Convention, he too would have been directly consulted. Times W. 11/1, 18.

Had the greatest critics always power to make men love and admire that which they loved and admired, then Congreve were assuredly one of his country's favourites. Times Lit. 4/10, 23.

There was no question that *The Stone House* was a remarkable book. Had it been Peter's first novel it must have made an immense stir.

Walpole, Fortitude III ch. 8 p. 315.

This might have depressed Garrison had he not received a letter from the man of genius couched in these terms:... Galsworthy, Caravan p. 420.

Were I you I should devote myself for a week to their little performances. Kipling, Stalky and Co. ch. 1.

Were the Radicals sincere in their professions in favour of political equality they would make some attempt to see that all parties were fairly represented in the House of Commons in proportion to their numbers.

Mr. Balfour, reported Daily News 9/10, 11.

The reader would never dream of taking such persons as Rawdon and his aunt seriously, were he not told to do so by the author of their being.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 93.

The use of *were* in concessive clauses without a conjunction seems to be a special case of the same use.

But were a man never so usurious, would he not lend a winter seed for a summer song?

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 2 p. 11.

Art, in some degree, is within the scope of every human-being, were he but the ploughman who utters a few would-be melodious notes.

Gissing, Ryecroft ch. 20.

No one can plead the command of a superior, were it the order of the Crown itself, in defence of conduct otherwise not justified by law.

Dicey, Constit. Lect. VII p. 295.

1524. It has been shown in the first volume that the preterite *were* is used in spoken English as an irrealis in subordinate clauses of condition, concession, and comparison, with the conjunctions *if*, *as if*, *though*, *as though*, etc.; see 38 f. This use is also frequent in literary English, both to express what is contrary to fact (*a*) and what is uncertain (*b*); but in literary English the use of *were* is extended to concessive clauses with conjunctive adverbs in *-ever* and the alternative clauses with *whether* (*c*), and to dependent questions (*d*).

a. I felt as though I were in a moonlit cathedral.

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 6 p. 56.

Though he were dying¹⁾, he assured himself, he would not send for him (i. e. his son).

Garvice, *Staunch as a Woman* p. 242.

"But see now! Suppose I were going away, and you were never going to see me any more, should you be sorry?" ib. p. 60.

b. If she were not strong enough to tear George from his rocks —! Vachell, *Spragge* p. 160.

c. However much Pushkin were translated, his European renown would never equal theirs (i. e. Goethe's and Shakespeare's). *Athenaeum* 18/11, 11.

In this dreary world she alone had shown that she cared whether he lived or died, were insulted or respected, were treated like a dog or like a Christian man.

Grondhoud-Roorda, *Leesboek* III.

d. She passed from view; Hilary strained his eyes to see if Hughs were following.

Galsworthy, *Fraternity* ch. 9 p. 96.

Nor is such punctuation as they used quite intelligible. Why did it exist without word-separation? Whether it were, to make the sense unquestionable, or to indicate pauses for the guidance of a public reader, is not clear.

Academy 23/9, 1905.

Quietly, as though he were reciting the story to himself and were not sure whether he were telling it aloud or no, he began. As he continued she could see the place as though it was there with her in the room ...

Walpole, *Fortitude* I ch. 1 § 3 p. 159.

He stood sometimes in the little house and wondered for an instant whether it were all true.

ib. III ch. 4 § 3 p. 274.

1525. The literary character of a form has for an inevitable consequence that writers are not quite certain in its use. Accordingly we find *were* in cases when no modal form is

1) There is no question of the speaker dying at that moment. He is not even ill.

admissible because a plain fact must be expressed. Thus *were* is sometimes used in clauses of concession and of open condition (*a*), occasionally in clauses with inverted order of subject and predicate and no conjunction, although this construction is peculiar to clauses of rejected condition (*b*). The use of *were* in a clause dependent upon a clause with a modal preterite, though intelligible, is probably an attempt to imitate Latin syntax rather than genuine English (*c*).

a. This restless and resolute woman instantly took Harry Warrington under her charge, and, callous-hearted though she were, she stoutly protected him against his cousins. Whibley, Thackeray p. 226.

At that part of the afternoon, if it were summer-time, the younger members of the staff could be observed standing upon tables in the packing-room, hanging tin kettles over gas-jets. If it were winter they would turn their attention to the fires.

Niven, Porcelain Lady p. 25.

In the morning after breakfast, if it were fairly fine, a visit would be paid to Kensington Gardens.

Sinister Street p. 22.

A meeting with an officer who was being carried off the field with a mutilated leg illustrates the spirit: — “If he were suffering great pain he did not show it.”

Times Lit. 29/16.

b. Imagine a party of bookish men — not bookworms — of middle age.... Were the members of such a party asked to name the greatest literary thrill of their youth, assuredly more than one would unhesitatingly vote for that distant day when they first alighted upon “The Luck of Roaring Camp.” Times Lit. 3/2, 16.

1526. We also find the preterite *was*, not only when a fact must be expressed (*a*), but also in a modal function (*b*). The present tense is also used, although it is hardly frequent (*c*).

a. The sun shone brightly, but without much warmth, throughout the morning, and if the afternoon was grey

with clouds, nobody minded, for they suggested the coming of snow rather than rain. Times.

And then there began a series of long cloudless days for Sylvia Bailey. For the first time she felt as if she was seeing life, and such seeing was very pleasant to her.

Lowndes, Chink ch. 10 p. 115.

b. It seems as though some diligent alchemy was at work, pouring out from moment to moment this strangely tempered motion. Benson, Thread of Gold p. 9.

At the instant he wished that she was dead.

Compton p. 179.

(She) went up and down the stairs in her rustling black, and flat white face and jingling keys, as though she was no human being at all but only a walking automaton... Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 7 § 2 p. 80.

c. Poor Jamaica! It seems as though all the elements are in league against her. Trollope (Ellinger p. 71).

1527. In literary English, chiefly in poetry, rarely in prose, the preterites *could*, *might*, and *were* are used, with inversion of the order of subject and predicate, with an interjection preceding them, to express an idle wish (*a*). There is no inversion when there is an introductory *that* (*b*).

a. O might my love that in one heart has found
Such hope to cherish, and such joy to sound,
O might it grow ...
Till in its clear profound
Part of thy peace were seen. L. Binyon, A Prayer.

Ah! could I control
These vague desires, these leaping flames of the soul:
Could I but quench the fire, ah! could I stay
My soul that flieth, alas, and dieth away!

R. Bridges, Prometheus the Firegiver 1477 ff.

b. O that we too might stand
Amid unrustling reeds,
That banner with dark plumes the shadowy strand!

• • • • • • • • •

O that we too might glide
 With eager eyes and happy lips a-quiver
 Into the mist that veils the further side!
 Gibson, Waters of Lethe.

She cried aloud "O that I had seen his face!"
 Hardy, Return of the Native II ch. 2.

Oh, were I on Parnassus' Hill! Burns.

The close relationship between this construction and the preceding one is shown by this example.

Oh, at home had I but stayed
 'Prenticed to my father's trade,
 Had I stuck to plane and adze,
 I had not been lost, my lads.

Housman, Shropshire Lad XLVII.

1528. The forms in -st, both for the present and -th and for the preterite, and the corresponding forms in -t (*shalt*, *wilt*, *art*: 1516) are exclusively used as predicates to a subject *thou*.

Red Wind from out the East:
 Red Wind of blight and blood!
 Ah, when wilt thou have ceased
 Thy bitter, stormy flood?

Lionel Johnson, The Red Wind (Van Doorn p. 137).

Lieutenant Bonaparte,
 Would it not seemlier be to shut thy heart
 To these unhealthy splendours? — render thee
 To whom thou swarest first, fair Liberty?

Hardy, Dynasts I VI (p. 56).

The third person in -(e)th is perhaps still rarer, except in the form *hath*.

Old age, that dwelt upon thy years
 With softest and with stateliest grace,
 Hath sealed thine eyes, hath closed thine ears,
 And stilled the sweetness of thy face.

Lionel Johnson, In Memory of M. B. (p. 77).

1529. The use of the forms in *-est* and *-eth* requires some more comment¹⁾: they were very common in the poetry of the latter half of the nineteenth century; thus in William Morris and Kipling. It may be that Morris was influenced by the Old Germanic poetry he had studied, and Kipling by the distinctions between a second person singular and plural in native Indian languages. Similarly R. C. Trevelyan in *The Foolishness of Solomon* (1915) uses *thou* throughout, together with *methinks*, etc., in supposed agreement with its Eastern setting; but the effect is sometimes intentionally grotesque, as in this passage, where the fiend Asmodai, finding his favourite beverage, salt water, replaced by wine, 'muses thus, dubiously':

"What if that curst enchanter has abused
My sense with false olfactive sorcery?
What if in truth within this jar there be
Not wine, but water, water with the scent
Of sweet wine, in that one sole accident
Changed, but unchanged in substance as in Name,
In taste, colour and innocence still the same?
No, thou vile wizard, not so shall thy craft
Fool and beguile me of my longed-for draught."

But apart from such special circumstances younger poets do not make much use of these traditional verbal forms, nor, indeed, of other archaisms. L. Binyon (in 'The Sirens', 1925) seldom uses *thou* (an example on p. 24), and has *you* in a case like the following where the older poets would almost certainly have used the archaic forms.

'Spirit of Man, dear spirit, sore opprest,
You that have been so great a lover...'

A. E. Housman never uses the *thou*-forms; the same can

1) This section is largely based on a communication of the Dutch poet and student of English W. van Doorn.

be said of the Anglo-Irish poets: Yeats, Russell (A. E.), James Stephens, Colum and others.

For further examples of *thou* (*thee*, etc.), see 1561.

1530. In the first volume it has been shown that in spoken English the stem of verbs is used predicatively, forming a suppletive system with the verbal [iz], called present tense (153 ff.), and being used as an imperative (172 ff.) and as an exclamative (183 ff.). In literary style the stem is used in two further functions which may be distinguished as the optative and the potential. It follows from the character of the form that no distinction of time is made. Both the optative and the potential stem are chiefly used of *to be*, evidently because this verb is the only one that has a real present, which is formally distinct from the stem that takes its functions (together with the form in Iz) in all other verbs.

Optative Stem **1531.** The stem is used in higher literary style to express a wish whose fulfilment is thought of as possible by the speaker. The construction is characterized by inversion of the usual order of subject and verb (see volume 3: *Sentence-Structure*), and occurs chiefly in simple sentences and the main clauses of compound sentences. The optative stem is becoming more and more unusual in modern literary English.

We cannot here follow Mr. J. in his sketch and criticism of the social and political conditions of this complicated and difficult period. *Suffice it* to say that he has made a contribution to historical scholarship which no future historian can ignore. Everyman 28/9, 13.

Potential Stem **1532.** The stem is also used to express possibility; this function may be denoted by the term potential. Two cases may be looked upon as transitional between the optative and the potential. The first

of these is the use of the stem in a sentence that is connected with another by *and*, with the same intonation as the imperative stem discussed in 178 (Ask too many questions, and you'll spoil everything). The first of such a group of sentences, though apparently coordinate, is really rather a subordinate (concessive) clause (*a*); this subordination is somewhat more evident, perhaps, when there is no connecting *and* (*b*), and when the clause with the stem follows the other (*c*).

a. As to such trifles as the tint and device of wall-paper, I confess my indifference; be the walls only unobtrusive, and I am satisfied. Gissing, Henry Ryecroft.

b. Be that as it may, little had been said about her husband. Trollope, Barchester ch. 9 p. 65.

Be the character possible or impossible, it is throughout credible in the reading.

Camb. Hist. Engl. Lit. XII p. 246.

c. And still one can never lay down a book of his without the last two feelings having their part, be the subject of treatment what it may.

C. Brontë in Mrs. Gaskell's Life ch. 24.

Brevity in the essay is, indeed, a quality apt to be neglected, and some of the American writers, be they never so charming, occasionally just threaten our patience a little.

Athenaeum 24/7, 15.

1533. The following cases are to be specially marked because they contain another stem than *be*; observe, too, that in the first sentence there is no subject. Ther are probably reminiscences of a literary character¹⁾.

It was more picturesque, it spared the donkey, and, as I began to see, it would insure stability, blow high, blow low. Stevenson, Donkey p. 63.

It matters not how long I wander. There is no task to bring me back; no one will be vexed or uneasy, linger I ever so late. Gissing, Ryecroft III p. 10.

1) Cf. Blow high, blow low, and so sail we.

High Barbary, (Sailors' Song quoted from memory).

1534. The second more or less transitional case is the use of the stem in clauses depending upon a main clause expressing will or command, which is mostly expressed by such verbs as *to demand, insist, require, urge, propose, suggest, advise, arrange, take care*.

For the moment I must beg that a little indulgence be granted her. Meredith, Harrington ch. 19 p. 200.

The report suggests that the subject be dealt with at the Imperial Conference. Times W. 12/1, 17.

I have demanded that the money be returned to me.

In response to memorials . . . the Board of Agriculture has now issued instructions that special editions of the one-inch Ordnance Survey maps be supplied to the public.

Pilot 24/10, 1903.

1535. In other cases the stem is clearly a potential without any trace of the optative sense. It is thus found in various kinds of subordinate clauses:

(1) clauses of open condition, usually introduced by *if, unless*.

The effect of many possessions, especially if they be newly acquired, in slackening moral vigour, is a proverb.

Morley, Compromise p. 35.

But I confess that, so long as a volume hold together, I am not much troubled as to its outer appearance.

Gissing, Ryecroft ch. 12.

Those Churchmen, if there be any, who are "in no mood for compromise", will do well to read Mr. Riley's speech.

Pilot 17/10, 1903.

If any one succeed in definitely linking up Borneo and Rome by means of Assam, the future of the ethnological method is assured.

Athenaeum 28/12, 12.

(2) clauses of concession with a conjunction (*though, if, whether*) or a pronoun or adverb in *-ever* (*a*); also disjunctive concessive clauses (*b*).

a. As his equipment for this task Mr. Innes has brought wide reading, a studied fair-mindedness,

siderable power of marshalling facts, and a style which, if it display no great literary qualities, is clear and readable.

Times Lit. 22/7, 15.

Respect the mighty instinct, however mysterious it seem.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 18 p. 186.

Whatever the cause be, the author has hardly done justice to his subject.

The soul of man is not subject to the rumour of periods; and these pages, impregnated though they be with the abolished life of the eighteenth century, can never be out of date.

Lyttton Strachey, Books and Characters p. 78.

b. Whether the attempt succeed or fail, some important general questions of literary doctrine will have been discussed.

ib. p. 6.

Now a man — be he king or no king — may as well die swiftly and as becomes a gentleman, from bullet or thrust, as rot his life out in a cellar.

Hope, Prisoner of Zenda.

(3) clauses of purpose, introduced by *that, lest*.

But the stalks of the later flowers begin to be stuffed with hurrying bloom lest they be too late . . .

Allen, Kentucky Cardinal ch. 8 p. 63.

(4) dependent questions.

I wonder whether it be really true.

Gissing, Henry Ryecroft.

When one considers how through all the centuries the masters of thought and expression have appealed to men who knew nothing of criticism, higher or lower, one is tempted to doubt whether the critic be not an altogether superfluous phenomenon.

1536. We occasionally find the potential stem in a clause that depends upon another containing the potential stem.

But whether it be thought or fact which engage his mind, the result is most often both trivial and transitory.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 44.

1537. It has been stated that the optative and potential stem inevitably leave the time of the action or state unexpressed. This is especially to be noted in those cases when other forms would show concord of tense, in indirect style. This may be illustrated by the following quotations, both for the optative (*a*) and the potential (*b*).

a. He was sure that the voice of loyal Punjab, loyal Delhi, loyal India, Indians and Europeans, would condemn the atrocious attempt. God *grant* it might be the last! It should appeal to all loyalists as amounting to sacrilege on such an occasion. Times W. 27/12, '12.

b. By 306 votes to 208 it was decided that the control of the Constabulary be transferred to the Irish Parliament six years after the meeting of that Assembly. Everyman.

At midnight Mr. Borden moved that the Committee rise and report progress. Times W. 14/3, 13.

With noiseless steps lest she awake him, she began to move about the room.

J. L. Allen, *Bride of the Mistletoe* p. 161.

Something restful in the tone of the front of Morely's Hotel, there being thin sunlight on it to bring out its mellowness, helped to suggest that she alight there.

Niven, *Porcelain Lady* p. 103.

.... and he thought her as yet not old enough to suggest that she pray to herself. id. p. 174 f.

He knew that no doctor, be he ever so cunning, could, with all his striving, put the breath into that body again.

Gaskell, *Wives and Daughters* vol. III.

For monstrous though he appear to Thackeray, he had the genius of friendship before all his fellows.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 165.

1538. Both the optative and the potential stem are exclusively used in the higher literary style. This inevitably weakens their hold upon the natural linguistic sense of even the most experienced writer. The hold is strengthened in

many cases by the support provided by the study of Latin, in some cases also of Greek, syntax; for these languages have special forms to express similar meanings (the Latin subjunctive, and the Greek subjunctive and optative).

The artificial character of the two uses of the stem of the English verbs is probably the cause that it is sometimes used when a plain fact is referred to; in such cases the stem is not a means to express a thought with greater exactness than is found necessary in daily life but a means of being 'different' from the common herd.

The interest of Marlowe's work is that it is the first to show how the age had broken with tradition. If it *unveil* so much to us, it may have helped even Shakespeare to feel his own power and reach.

Professor Gregory Smith in Camb.
Hist. of Engl. Lit. V 149.

Indeed, when Thackeray discusses the ever-interesting problem of French and English, he is both wise and fair, even if he arrive at no conclusion.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 53.

1539. As in the case of the imperative stem (174) the optative stem without a subject may come to be an interjection: *damn*.

Auxiliaries **1540.** The auxiliary is occasionally used as an independent verb. In this case it is nearly always a verb of motion that is implied. This usage is now limited to literary (archaic) English, and even there it is rare. The last quotation provides a case in current use.

Wherefore let us to our story, the froth being out of the bottle. Meredith, Diana of the Crossways p. 17.

He must away; the carefully-worded wire¹⁾

Heralds his advent, warns his anxious sire.

Gilbert Frankau, One of Us II 31 (p. 23).

1) *Viz.* by the headmaster, expelling the boy.

We must to Deutschland, *Deutschland über alles.*

ib. II 1 (p. 25).

When you get there, he'll swear eternal friendship.
He can't away with the prosperous.

Rose Macaulay, Lee Shore ch. 2 p. 36.

Do 1541. In literary English weak-stressed *do* is frequently used in sentences made negative by *but*.

The Government has lost several of its members,
and the newcomers do but poorly replace those who
have gone. Pilot.

These days of spring which I should be enjoying for
their own sake, do but turn me to reminiscence.

Gissing, Ryecroft X.

In choosing *The English Humourists of the Eighteenth Century* as the subject of his first course, he (Thackeray) did but follow the natural bent of his mind.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 168.

1542. Weak-stressed *do* has been traditionally retained in liturgical and legal phraseology, as in the Te Deum and in proverbs.

We praise Thee, o God: we acknowledge thee to be
the Lord.

All the earth doth worship thee, the Father everlasting.
Te Deum.

My lovers and my neighbours did stand looking upon
my trouble; and my kinsmen stood afar off.

Psalm 38, 11.

In imitation of this and of the usage of older poets this use of auxiliary *do* is sometimes resorted to by modern poets, occasionally to obtain an extra syllable.

A little child, he did begin
The Heaven of Heavens by storm to win;
At eighty years he entered in.

Lionel Johnson, Chalkhill (p. 32).

1543. In literary English *do* is often not used in negative sentences with *not*, and in interrogative sentences. Note, however, that in the last quotation the sentence is not necessarily negative, as *not* may be understood to qualify the words immediately following (*of acts of violence, of the secret death*).

There, Raleigh shone; there, toiled Franciscan feet;
There, Johnson flinched not, but endured alone.

Lionel Johnson, Oxford (p. 33).

Poor Ermyntrude, what cared you for their cricket,
Who knew not which was umpire, which was wicket!

Gilbert Frankau, One of Us II, 6 (p. 15).

He himself had always known his own mind, and had let others know it, too; reminding his wife that she was an impracticable woman, who knew not her own mind, and devoting his lawful gains to securing the future of his progeny. Galsworthy, Fraternity p. 25.

"All lotteries," says a daily paper, "are illegal in this country, and no announcements concerning them are allowed to appear in our columns." How comes it then that our contemporary permits itself to publish marriage announcements? Punch 20/11, 12.

I speak not of acts of violence or murder, or of processes which, though clothed under legal form, were without precedent in our history. I speak not of the secret death of Henry the Sixth or of the open execution of Charles the First. I speak of the regular process of the Law.

Freeman, Growth of the English Constitution.

1544. *Shall* and *should* are used archaically in a meaning that is not clearly connected with any living use. They chiefly bring in illustrations of a point already laid down; *should* is used modally here, and adds a little to the expression of uncertainty.

You shall hear the same persons say that George Barnwell is very natural, and Othello is very natural.

But what a world of difference there may be 'twixt library and library! You shall enter one man's study

and at the first glance of your eye at his treasures you find yourself, let us hope involuntarily, breaking the Tenth Commandment. Times 25/8, 20.

A company of old comrades shall be merry and laughing together, and the entrance of a single youngster will stop the conversation.

Thackeray, Newcomes I ch. 16.

But it should seem that, as soon as her husband had lost her, he began to reproach himself for having neglected her wishes.

Spoken English has *will* and *would* in these cases, or uses a different construction.

You may know a man for twenty years, and in the twenty-first year he will do something which will make your twenty years' experience count for nought.

Hobbes, Emotions I ch. 1.

1545. *Shall* is used in rhetorical questions and exclamations in the same way as *should*, which has been illustrated in 698.

So the general impression left by this book is that the unity of Western civilization is still a matter of speculation and hope. But in mere faith there is something magnificent, and who shall say that it shall not prevail? Times Lit. 24/2, 16.

Mr. Partington's book has its shortcomings, and yet who shall dare to lower his thumbs? ib. 16/9, 20.

Who shall describe their surprise when they at last turned round and beheld standing before them a beautiful lady exquisitely dressed!

1546. *Shall* is also used in a number of subordinate clauses in cases when common English has *should* only; compare 705—8. The following arrangement will show the parallelism with *should*:

(1) with a verb of will or wish in the main clause.

I saw that, whether you love him or not, you desire that I shall think that you do.

El. Glyn, The Man and the Moment ch. 17 p. 209.

It has been decided that the second reading shall not be opposed. Times Ed. S. 28/2, 18.

Miss Una L. Silberrad has contrived that her character study *Co-Directors* shall present itself with the allurements of a full-blooded story of adventure.

Times Lit. 22/4, 15.

The business of the Conference is to make sure that the resolutions shall be so thought out as to cover the whole field and that the practical measures shall correspond with them. Times W. 30/11, 17.

His plan is that Lord Fauntleroy shall be educated under his own supervision; that he shall live with him.

Burnett, *Fauntleroy* ch. 2.

The Turks (not unreasonably) are demanding that the Bulgarians shall retire behind the Enos-Midia line.

Nation 12/7, 13.

The following cases are of a similar character, but are also related to the use of *should* treated in 709.

In view of this fact, it is highly desirable that all the aspects of the question shall be fully discussed.

Everyman.

We may also conclude that, in all verse of this kind, it is not essential that every disyllabic cadence shall be filled out with sound — shall be a spondee and not a trochee. Omund, in Essays III 89.

It is very important that the teacher of reading shall consider this point.

Wyld, *Teaching of Reading* p. 17.

(2) in attributive clauses.

It requires a highly cultivated style which shall select the best and reject the second best, and a musical ear which shall detect and discard every discord.

Pilot 21/11, 1903.

The idea of every translator, I imagine, is to produce what shall affect the best judges just as the original affects them. Omund, in Essays II 72.

We are much nearer a definite discussion of the peace which shall end this war.

President Wilson, Times W. 26/1, 17.

(3) in adverb clauses of condition (*a*) and time (*b*).

a. Japan will adhere to her pledge of neutrality unless Russia shall violate hers.

b. There is much to be done before every child in the country shall speak English as could be wished.

Wyld, Evolution p. 41.

There is a month yet, and I promise you to be back ere it shall have elapsed.

NOUNS

1547. Apart from the forms *kine* [kain], a suppletive-plural to *cow*, and *brethren* by the side of *brothers*, literary English does not differ from common English with regard to the number of nouns. The form *kine* is quite exceptional in modern poetry if used at all (except humorously). *Brethren* is kept alive by its biblical association and its use in the pulpit; this accounts for its use in the sense of 'fellow-men' ¹⁾.

Of greater importance are the peculiarities of literary English in the use of the genitive of nouns (partly also of the personal pronouns) and in the gender of non-personal nouns.

Genitive

1548. The genitive in literary English differs from the same-form in common English:

- (1) in its use as an attributive adjunct to the following noun;
- (2) in its use as a subject to a verbal ing;
- (3) in its predicative use.

Attributive Genitive **1549.** In all styles of written English the genitive of non-personal nouns is used as an attributive adjunct to the following leading noun ²⁾.

1) For details see Poutsma ch. 25. Also Karpf, *Neuere Sprachen* 29.

2) A detailed study of the subject has been published by T. Hilding Svartengren: *Studies in the 's-Genitive*. Norrköping, 1928—9.

In the heath's barrenness to the farmer lay its fertility
to the historian. Hardy, Native I ch. 3 p. 18.

He stared at the room's dreary furniture, he listened
to the driving rain.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 9 4 p. 109.

Now he looked on the hill's edge and looked down
into a golden landscape whose bounds he could not
discern. ib. III ch. 2 § 2 p. 247 f.

This time he is in his more idyllic vain; an 'Idyl of
the Islands' might have been the book's subtitle.

Athen. 9/11, 1907 p. 579.

It was this perfect correspondence with the average
knowledge of life which partly explains the book's
popularity. Whibley, Thackeray p. 195.

The friends and foes of the Spartans were to be Athens's
friends and foes. Goodspeed, History p. 179.

Then he himself became envious of sleep, and undressed
quickly like one who stands hot-footed by a lake's edge,
eager for the water's cool. Sinister Street p. 423.

Here are labours of the erudite, exercised on every
subject that falls within learning's scope.

Gissing, Ryecroft ch. 22.

She was jealous on behalf of her sex; her sex's
reputation seemed at stake.

Mr. Wells is almost the only novelist we possess who
dares to generalise boldly and examine the meaning of
modern problems in Society's life. Nation 17/7, '13.

1550. The use of the non-personal genitive is contrary
to the character of living English, both in its use of the
genitive itself and in its gender; this artificiality is felt by
modern readers, as appears from the following quotation (*a*),
although the genitive is perfectly natural in some traditional
groups (*b*).

a. The recent rise of the genitive with place-names
in English, as in "London's Water-Supply", is mainly

traceable to the headline¹⁾; but we have not yet arrived at Devonshire's Duke or Wight's Isle²⁾.

Times Lit. 6/4, 22.

b. For the most part, they left their country for their country's good. Academy.

Academy.

1551. In the higher literary language we occasionally find the genitive as an apposition to the headword, as in *Britain's isle* for *the isle of Britain*. The construction is impossible in *Wight's Isle* (the last example of 1550a) because the words are not used appositionally.

1552. The use of relative (not interrogative) *whose* is exactly parallel to that of the genitive of non-personal nouns; see also the third quotation of 1549.

We came quite suddenly upon its railway-station, a small building alone in the woods, the terminus of the line whose other end is Putbus. Eliz. in Rügen.

On a given straight line to construct a triangle whose three sides shall be equal.

One puffy, feeble hand, whose fingers quivered, rested on the arm of his chair. Galsworthy, *Caravan* p. 45.

A party of hunters had descended this path into the desert in search of ostriches, whose plumes are much prized among them for war head-dresses.

So we drove on to the end hotel, from whose terrace we could look down at the deserted sands and the wonderful colour of the water. Eliz. in Rügen.

England is a country whose population is perpetually overflowing her narrow geographical limits.

Escott, England I p. 8.

Genitive with Ing 1553. The genitive of personal nouns as a subject of an ing has been treated in volume I (121). In literary English the construction is extended to non-personal nouns and to indefinite pronouns, which are

1) i.e. newspaper headline.

2) But see 1551.

regarded as attributive adjuncts to the ing considered as a noun. It is clear that an interpretation of the ing as a noun in this construction is impossible, though it can be so interpreted in other cases, just as it can be looked upon as an adjective in others.

The reason why some writers insist on this construction which is contrary to the character of modern English sentence-structure seems to be that they have been taught this interpretation of the ing by teachers who take Latin syntax as the general standard to which human speech must be made to conform. The result is extremely artificial, occasionally misleading and ludicrous English.

With rare discrimination he persuaded J. H. Shorthouse, author of "John Inglesant," to write an introduction, which was largely responsible for the book's running into five editions.

Mr. Frederic Harrison's vigorous protest against this country's taking part in the next Olympic games, and the "humble remonstrance" on the same lines from the Headmaster of Sherborne which we publish elsewhere, reflect, we are well aware, the opinion of a considerable section of the community. Times W.

There was a short debate on the probability of the rain's coming before breakfast was done.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 161.

She never gave him a syllable of good advice, or talked to him about everything's depending upon his own exertions^{1).} Butler, Way of All Flesh.

He was regarding her with an expression, that, had she not been assured of his entire attention's being concentrated upon Anglo-Saxon history, she would have supposed to be friendly, even affectionate.

Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 7 p. 192.

It (viz. the house) was haunted by a sense of everything's having served some other purpose from that for which it was originally intended. ib. ch. 7 p. 185.

1) In this sentence the stem *everything* would even be less desirable.

Jasmine . . . was anxious to prevent anything's happening to upset what so far were the jolliest weeks she had passed since she had left Sirene. ib. ch. 8 p. 201.

1554. The following quotation shows that interference with the genuine constructions of a language may lead to ambiguity or clearly wrong sentences.

The doctrines are those of Aristotle, of Goethe, of Coleridge, indeed, as one can imagine Patmore's saying, 'of all sensible men'. Times Lit. 26/5, 21.

In this case *saying* is caused to mean *statement* by the preceding genitive, whereas the meaning intended is that one can imagine that Patmore might have said it; which would be expressed by *Patmore saying*; see 115.

Another example showing the undesirable result of the indiscriminate use of the genitive is supplied by the following sentence.

She suddenly realized that it was not altogether for Richard's sake that she had dreaded the idea of *Guy's* falling in love with Margaret. Guy and Pauline p. 75.

The effect of the genitive here can only be to suggest that the falling in love is a fact, which is exactly what is not intended to be expressed.

1555. The following sentence seems worth mentioning.

At last Pauline came in, and Guy seemed to be only aware of a tremendous increase in the noise of the conversation. He realized that it was due to *himself's* talking nonsense at the top of his voice and that Pauline was vainly trying to get on with his father.

Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 232.

This use of the genitive *himself's* is probably the furthest step to which any writer can persuade himself, in obedience to the teaching of ignorant grammarians. It has not dawned upon the writer, apparently, that the genitive of the emphatic pronouns is formed by *own*. It need hardly be said that the genitive

of non-personal nouns as the subject of an ing is a very frequent, indeed the regular construction, in the same writer's novels¹⁾.

Predicative Genitive **1556.** The genitive of personal nouns (*a*) and of the personal pronouns (*b*) can be used independently as illustrated in 839 f. The independent genitive may naturally be any part of the sentence; when it is a nominal predicate, however, as in the first quotation of 839, it is outwardly identical with a construction that is occasionally found in literary English. The predicative genitive is used without any noun to which it refers, and expresses the same meanings as the attributive genitive (834).

a. So the chatter was all on her side. There is a loquacity that tells nothing, which was Bathsheba's; and there is a silence which says much: that was Gabriel's.

Hardy, Madding Crowd ch. 22 p. 168 f.

Nature has denied him (i. e. Lord Curzon) the wit that is Lord Rosebery's. Athen. 17/7, '15.

He could not serve; he was too old for that; but his men and his money were the King's for this sacred undertaking. Davis, Med. Europe p. 194.

(Hakluyt rode 200 miles to hear the story) from the mouth of its one survivor, Mr. Thomas Buts. And a moving story was Buts's to tell. Times Lit. 26/10, '16.

b. It was theirs to lay the foundation, it has been his to raise the arch. Times W. 30/8, 18.

"High exploits" (and some low ones) were his in plenty. Times Lit. 4/11, 15.

This geographical primacy is no longer ours; for the Pacific trade will in a short time be almost as important as the Atlantic. Dean Inge, England p. 3.

This was his to work with, this was his to praise and glorify and make beautiful.

Walpole, Fortitude I ch. 12 p. 147.

1) Naturally the author is not consistent and frequently uses the genuine construction: prevent us being alone (p. 175), absurdity of other people pretending (p. 181), etc.

Gender

1557. In the higher style, and in imitation of this also in journalistic English, nouns denoting things or ideas are often treated as animate, taking the masculine or feminine pronouns, contrary to the gender of the nouns in common English. In many cases the gender depends on the gender the corresponding word has in Latin. Hence names of countries are usually feminine, whereas names of rivers are mostly masculine.

In the thirteenth century the Church was seen at her best. Constitutional Essays p. 334.

At such times Liberty must be saved by deeds if she is to be saved at all. Times W. 21/9, '17.

Out of doors Nature wore her mildest, most beneficent aspect. She evidently cared nothing for the squalid tragedies of human fate. Her hills were bathed in gentle light. Her sunshine lay warm along the cottage fronts. In the gardens her hopeful bees, cheated into thoughts of summer, droned round the pale mauves and purples of what was left of starworts....

Princess Priscilla p. 278.

Our differences are emphasized by our propinquity, and perhaps France consults her own temper best in choosing alliances at a distance. Little as she knows England, she knows less of Russia, and happily mistakes her ignorance for sympathy.

Whibley, Thackeray p. 54.

Fairless, Road-Mender VI p. 55.

Autumn is here and it is already late. He has painted the hedges russet and gold, scarlet and black, and a tangle of grey.

And still, as language was made for man, he will be no authority for correctnesses which, limiting freedom of utterance, were yet but accidents in their origin; as if one vowed not to say "*its*", which ought to have been in Shakespeare; "*his*" and "*hers*", for inanimate objects, being but a barbarous and really inexpressive survival. Walter Pater, *Appreciations* p. 13.

The Rose in the garden slipped her bud,
 And she laughed in the pride of her youthful blood,
 As she thought of the Gardener standing by —
 "He is old, — so old! And he soon must die!"

Austin Dobson, in Van Doorn, *Primrose Path* p. 11.

1558. Names of things, even when personified, do not necessarily take a personal gender.

The British School at Athens and *its* younger sister, the British School at Rome. Times W. 15/2, 1907.

Other cities put on their best clothes in summer, but New York seems to sit in its shirt-sleeves.

Wharton, *House of Mirth* p. 3.

1559. Names of celestial bodies are masculine or feminine according to the person in Greek or Latin mythology from whom they derive their names. For this reason *Venus* is feminine, *Mars* is masculine. The word *sun* is masculine because the corresponding Latin word has that gender. For the same reason *moon* is feminine.

1560. The personal gender of these nouns being a literary usage, it is natural that writers should sometimes mix the personal and the neuter gender. Compare 941.

In the third place, it is obvious that no very close or instructive analogy can be established between Rome in her relations with the provincials and Great Britain in its relations with the self-governing colonies.

Cromer, *Imperialism* p. 17.

Every moment now the attraction between the fiery star and the greatest of the planets grew stronger. And the result of that attraction? Inevitably Jupiter would be deflected from its orbit into an elliptical path, and the burning star, swung by his attraction wide of its sunward rush, would "describe a curved path", and perhaps collide with, and certainly pass very close to, our earth. Wells, *Country of the Blind* p. 315 f.

PRONOUNS

Personal Pronouns

1561. Literary English has the following additional forms:

Genitive

	Nominative	Oblique	Attrib.	Indep.
2nd p. Sing.	thou [ðau]	thee [ði]	thy [ðai]	thine [ðain]
2nd p. Plural		ye [ji, jɪ]		

These forms are almost exclusively used in poetry and religious prose (in imitation of the Bible). Both *thee* (often shortened to 'ee) and *ye* are also found colloquially or facetiously; *ye* almost exclusively as a subject-form.

But Byron, most to thee, than whom no rarer
Spirit is found upon Elysium's plain!
To-day none know thy 'Childe' and none thy 'Lara',
Thy Hebrews are melodious in vain;
For many mark the falling price of Para,
Yet none the fall of Parisina slain,
Save only I, what hour, to midnight's chiming,
I search thy cantos for forgotten rhyming.

Gilbert Frankau, One of Us, Dedication st. 3.
Loud rang the curses from four Yankee lips.
But did the stripling grouse? Judge ye who know
Our English bulldog in his dying grips.

ib. VIII, 20 (p. 69).

Other examples have been given in the sections on the literary verbal forms in -st: 1528 f. *Thine* and *mine* are also used attributively, but only before vowels; see 1528.

The archaic *mine host* is sometimes used humorously in modern English.

Proudly mine host led Mrs. Bailey up the wide staircase.
Belloc Lowndes, Chink in the Armour ch. 5.

1562. In literary English we occasionally, though rarely, meet with the strong-stressed independent neuter pronoun

KRUIISINGA, Handbook II. *Accidence and Syntax.* 2.

30

its [its]. The following sentences are the only examples I have ever met with. The use is, no doubt, purely artificial.

If everything had its story, the mistletoe would have its.
Allen, Bride of the Mistletoe.

But the body has its function also, without which the soul could not fulfil its.

Grierson, Commentary on Donne p. 44.

1563. In higher literary English the simple personal pronouns are archaically used in a reflexive sense, both in verbs that are reflexive in living English (*a*) and such as were reflexive in earlier English, especially verbs of motion (*b*). See 1568.

a. I laid me down upon the shore
And dreamed a little space;

Frances Cornford, Poems of To-Day p. 2.
And I must bow me to the critics' flails,
To friends' derision and relations' banter.

G. Frankau, One of Us I, 4.
He sets him to the work.

Hardy, Dynasts I, II p. 22.
Over his cup of coffee, he bethought him that he would go to the opera.

Galsworthy, Man of Property I ch. 2.
b. We moored our craft, and sat us down to dine.
Frankau, One of Us II, 13.
Now to my long-neglected Gods of Gain,
A beggared suppliant I hie me back. ib. Epilogue.

1564. It has been pointed out, in 997, that the personal pronouns of the third person are almost exclusively used with weak stress in ordinary English. In all kinds of literary English, however, they can be used with strong stress:

- (1) as determinative pronouns;
- (2) as individual personal pronouns.

1565. The pronouns *he* and *they*, rarely *she*, are used as determinative pronouns.

It has often been said that he who begins life by stifling his convictions is in a fair way for ending it without any convictions to stifle. Morley, *Compromise*.

He is but a mean American who believes that this will last. Price Collier, England ch. 2 p. 45.

When he that is humblest among us goes out in the early morning to his work in the fields, or she that is least accounted of takes up her needle and sits down to her fourteen hours of sewing, they have that for which the richest blind man alive would, I imagine, give all that he has. John Galsworthy, *Times*.

The good old rule, the simple plan,
That they should take who have the power,
And they should hold who can.

How are we to know when we are at the head and fountain of the fates of them we love?

Meredith, *R. Feverel*.

And yet, to them that wish for wider knowledge,
Our London teaches more than any College.

G. Frankau, *One of Us XII*, 1.

.... there is nothing upon earth
More miserable than she that has a son
And sees him err. Tennyson, *Princess III*, 242 ff.

1566. It may be useful to remind the reader that a personal pronoun defined by a relative clause is not necessarily determinative, but may refer to individual persons.

Was his heart only pretending to laugh at the panic his old friend was stricken with at the mere mention of the word "death", he who had in his time faced death a hundred times without a qualm?

de Morgan, *Somehow Good* ch. 16 p. 157.

He who gave three hundred and fifty pages to the Roman Republic and the Defence of Rome, a story of a few months, now gives only four hundred to the story of England during a whole century.

Times Lit. 25/5, 22.

Their omnipotent, all-wise mother was not present to

tell them what to do. They who had never decided, had to decide now. Bennett, Old W. Tale I ch. 1 § 3.

She was conscious of an expectation that punishment would instantly fall on this daring impious child. But she, who never felt these mad, amazing impulses, could nevertheless only smile fearfully.

Bennett, Old Wives' Tale I ch. 1 § 2 p. 27.

She remembered that her first idea of Guy had been that of someone dry and cynical; and no doubt this first impression of his father was equally wrong. She who had been so shy and speechless was no doubt much to blame... Mackenzie, Guy and Pauline p. 240 f.

1567. The strong-stressed personal pronouns of the third person when denoting individuals can be qualified by a prepositional adjunct or a clause.

Robert Burton, he of 'The Anatomy of Melancholy,' wrote in Vaughan's time a 'History of the Principality of Wales.' Quart. Rev. April 1914.

As it is with us breathing mortals who appear variously to diverse minds, so it was with the white lady, she of porcelain, who stood over her white reflection on the polished surface of John Brough's table.

Niven, Porcelain Lady.

In the late squire's time — he who had been plucked at college — the library windows had been boarded up to avoid paying the window-tax.

Gaskell, Wives I ch. 6.

"Where is Thomas?" said she of the Argus eyes.

Trollope, Framley ch. 7.

1568. Like the simple personal pronouns (1563), the compound pronouns are sometimes used reflexively in archaic or literary English with verbs that are always intransitive in spoken English.

Montaigne sat himself down, when he took refuge from the world in his famous tower, to describe himself.

Academy 23/9, 1905.

1569. In literary English the compound pronouns are sometimes used as the emphatic subject of a sentence.

But what exactly was himself doing on the committee?
Sinister Street p. 588.

We have learned at last that ourselves must subdue
the land, and that our own hands must build the city.
Academy.

Himself would have branded them with the letters in
the hue of fire. Meredith, Egoist.

1570. In the following sentence the compound pronoun may have been used because there is a double sentence.

His stable had caught fire, himself had been all but
roasted alive. Meredith, R. Feverel.

Relative Pronouns

1571. Literary English has relatives with *-soever*, viz. *whosoever* and *whatsoever*, in the same functions as the compounds with *-ever*.

Yet with all his distaste for 64 Carlington Road Michael
could scarcely check the impulse he had to mount the
steps, and knocking at the door, inform whomsoever
should open it that he had once lived in this very house.
Sinister Street p. 573.

By whomsoever majesty is beheld for the first time,
there will always be experienced a vague surprise bordering
on disappointment. Brontë, Villette ch. 20.

This rule of law, which means at bottom the right
of the Courts to punish any illegal act by whomsoever
committed, is of the very essence of English institutions.
Dicey, Law of Const. Lect. VIII.

The rule of feudalism in any form whatsoever was at
an end. Const. Essays p. 167.

(We had) nothing to drink whatsoever beyond a little
keg of water. Wells, Country p. 74.

1572. In literary English we also find *whoso* in noun-clauses. *Whatso* occurs both in noun- and in adverb-clauses. These forms are less frequent than those in *-soever*.

Whoso drank of the ale of the Green Dragon kept
in his memory a place apart for it.

Meredith, Harrington ch. 11 p. 105.

It is an acute comparison, happily indicative of the
morose angularity that words offer to whoso handles
them ...

Raleigh, Style p. 24.

Despatches, sermons, — whatso goes
Into their brain, comes out as prose.

Beeching, quoted NED.

I love thee, whatso time or men may say.

Morris, quoted ib.

Demonstrative Pronouns

1573. In literary English the demonstrative *yon* [jɒn] and *yonder* [jɒndə(r)] are used as adjective pronouns. They express what is further away than *that*; they may be said to be demonstratives of the third person.

To proclaim that yon ribs of beef and yonder ruddy
Britons have met, is to furnish matter for an hour's
comfortable meditation. Meredith, Harrington ch. 12.

'Tis enough to make half
Yonder zodiac laugh
When rulers begin to allude
To their lack of ambition,
And strong opposition
To all but general good!

the Hardy, Dynasts VI, vi p. 208.

To my thinking, yon young man won't have quite as
easy a time as he expects.

Belloc Lowndes, Cressida: No Mystery (T.) p. 31.

The last quotation may be dialectal; for *yon* is a current
pronoun in Northern English.

Indefinite Pronouns

1574. The only indefinite pronoun that calls for a remark here is *other*. In literary English it is not infrequent as an adjunct to a pronoun (*a*). Sometimes it is used substantively with a plural meaning, the word it refers to following in an *of*-adjunct (*b*).

a. But it will not be admitted so readily that anything other than harm can issue from an attempt to deal with him as if he were a philosopher. Jones, Browning ch. 2.

In an evil hour, according to the comment of George Henry Lewes, he (viz. Roger Bacon) had become a Franciscan friar. But, a younger son, and given to learning, what other could he have done, one might ask.

Times Lit. 11/6, '14.

Jane was too frightened to do other than scream.

Baring-Gould in Swaen I p. 13.

He could not therefore be other than an enemy of Dr. Thorne. Trollope, Thorne ch. 24.

b. The Jesuit stayed with him as long as he could, but many other of Inglesant's friends at Oxford showed him great kindness. Shorthouse, Inglesant ch. 8.

The house was partly deserted and partly occupied by a family of priests, and he slept there when he was not at the Cardinal's palace, or with other of his friends. ib.

It has recently been suggested that other of the "Canterbury Tales" . . . may have been written at this time.

Pilot 28/9, 1903.

The wide influence of this and other of his books is shown by the fact that most of them have reached a sixpenny edition. Athen. 28/8, '15.

But the merits of the book gradually obtained for it a popularity at home which has been surpassed by that of but one or two other of Dickens's works.

Ward, Dickens ch. 3.

And that is its chief defect, for a handbook is primarily intended for other than specialists.

Times Lit. 24/2, '16.

1575. In literary English *other* sometimes means 'different in nature or character'; it occurs both attributively (*a*) and predicatively (*b*). It is rarely found as a noun, without an article (*c*). Exceptionally it is found construed with *from* (instead of *than*), on the analogy of *different from* (*d*).

a. But the poacher was another kind of vermin than the stupid tenant. Meredith, Beauchamp's Career ch. 2.

But during these dreams she beheld herself as herself, never reckoning that her ideas and ideals might make another woman of her under conditions and conventions other than what she so thoroughly understood.

Vachell, Quinneys'.

To Henry James the novel was something other than a convenient hold-all into which any valuable observations and reflections might be stuffed at the last moment.

Times Lit. 9/3, '16.

b. The little prince's education teaches him that he is other than you. Meredith, Egoist.

It may be presumed that the De Courcys found it to their liking, or they would have made it other than it was. Trollope, Dr. Thorne p. 160.

She plunged gallantly into an adventure the more exciting because it was other than what she had deemed it to be. Vachell, Spragge p. 59.

c. It was the first time she had had the opportunity of using that word to other than a servant.

Bennett, Old W. T. III ch. 3 § 1.

d. (The house) was haunted by a sense of everything's having served some other purpose from that for which it was originally intended.

Mackenzie, Rich Rel. ch. 7 p. 185.

1576. Post-position of the attributive *other* often causes it to have or approach this meaning.

No neighbours other than the owners of big gardens would disturb their peace. Vachell, Quinneys'.

We are reminded by this sentence that as regards a very important portion of the work we have to deal with a writer other than Miss Foxcroft. The story of the formative part of Burnet's life is told, and told well, by the Rev. T. E. S. Clarke, the present minister of Saltoun.

Athen. 1/2, 1908.

Pronominal Adverbs

1577. Parallel to the pronominal adverbs *here*, *there*, *where*, used in spoken English to denote position and direction to a place, literary English has *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, expressing direction to a place, and *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, also *from hence*, etc., to express direction from a place. The forms in *-ence* are also used in a transferred sense, expressing cause.

The adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where* form compounds in higher style with prepositions: *herein*, *therein*, etc. The interrogative compounds are rare; less so the demonstrative and relative groups.

Much misconception would have been thereby avoided.
Times W. 9/11, '17.

Felix noted on the hall table one afternoon a letter in her handwriting, addressed to a Worcester newspaper, and remarked thereafter that she began to receive this journal daily. Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 34.

Tess was in a dream wherein familiar objects appeared as having light and shade and position, but no particular outline. Hardy, *Tess*.

... that slight figure (whereof he will be able to study the outward and visible presence in some excellent portraits and in many caricatures) ...

Mrs. H. Ward, *Harper's Mag.* May 1918.

... the general current of public opinion, the trend whereof has been more or less anti-clerical.

Dicey, *Law and Public Opinion* p. 40.

... the rude, ready labels wherewith the schoolboy

gums his fellows, and wherewith these three at school were gummed, would have enabled them years after — now, in their manhood — to be picked out at sight.

Hutchinson, *One Increasing Purpose* I ch. 1 p. 11.

Some other compounds of this type are quite exceptional and rather in the nature of experiments than current English; a case as the last of these quotations (*hereinafter*) is a reminiscence of legal English.

A bureau with an immense number of pigeonholes, whereat he had been obviously seated.

Galsworthy, *Freelands* ch. 34 p. 430.

The unappropriated land, the land of the nation, the folkland, forms a great fund whereout the king, with the consent of the wise, can reward his faithful followers.

Maitland, *Const. Hist.* p. 57.

We have contended that the Bolsheviks might — that, at least, it were worth while to discover whether they would — make a concordat with us wherunder they would purchase non-interference and the resumption of commercial relations at the price of honouring Russia's bills and abstaining from armed aggression.

New Statesman 25/1, 1919.

... the event to be related hereinafter.

Arlen, *Green Hat* ch. 2 p. 49.

Retrospect on Literary English

1578. When we consider the extent of the differences between Common and Literary English and bear in mind the very great differences that exist in some European countries between the two forms of ordinary intercourse, it seems we are justified in concluding that literary English does not essentially differ more from the colloquial language than its character makes unavoidable and, indeed, desirable. Just as the public speaker, even if taking a popular line, is bound to deviate from the language at his breakfast-table or his

club, so the literary artist inevitably uses forms and constructions that he would not dream of using in conversation.

Of course, it must be remembered that the preceding pages do not give a full account of the differences between the two styles of English. For, in agreement with the arrangement of the matter in this book, the syntax of word-groups proper, and of the sentence, including the important subject of the order of words, will be dealt with in the third volume; and the vocabulary cannot be treated at all, though some general observations may be possible in the chapter on *Word-Formation*. But even taking this into consideration, we may conclude that literary English does not contain serious contradictions of the natural forms and uses of the living language. It must be remembered that the decisively literary words, such as *thou*, etc., and the corresponding verbal forms, are hardly found outside poetry, and are rare even in modern poetry. It is naturally not the province of a linguist to estimate the effect of literary forms of language in a given case: this is the task of the literary critic. But this does not, and should not, mean that the linguist is precluded from estimating the character of literary constructions. For this reason the opinion of the present writer has been expressed in a small number of cases when it seemed to be called for, as in the use of the genitive as the subject of an ing. And an expression of opinion is unavoidable when it is necessary to decide whether a literary or archaic form is used seriously or jocularly. The latter is often an indication that the literary form is approaching extinction.

SUMMARY

1579. It has been observed in the summary of the first volume that a whole volume has had to be devoted to the verb, because the structure of the English sentence makes the verb the dominant part of speech. We may add, however, that the second half of the first volume really treats of the verb as the dominating element in word-groups. The verb as an individual part of speech, consequently, occupies only half of the volume; and even this is an over-statement when we consider that the participle and the ing, though in deference to tradition they have been incorporated with the verb, might with just as much, perhaps even better, reason have been treated as independent parts of speech.

The treatment of the other classes of words in the present volume is also based on the traditional arrangement. The reader will have observed that the classification of words in English necessarily depends on function and meaning rather than form¹⁾. For it is only the verb and the noun that can be said to have inflectional forms at all. And of the three endings of this character that may be supposed to exist, two at least have been shown to be derivative as much as inflectional. The result is that in modern English even more than in many related

1) Paul, *Prinzipien* ch. 20.

languages the boundaries between the various parts of speech are uncertain. Verbs and nouns are in a great many cases identical in form (*love, walk, find*, etc.), and it is not infrequently necessary to read an English sentence to the end before one can be certain whether a word is to be understood as a verb or as a noun. The simplicity of English with regard to forms has its practical disadvantages, and is made possible only by a complicated sentence-structure. The following examples may illustrate this.

1. Converse with many books and all sorts of books leads not to bookishness, . . .

Baker, *Uses of Libr.* p. 47.

2. Everyone knows by tradition, some claim to have known in the flesh, those librarians of good old days who hated to let any hand but their own disturb the dust that rested in consecrating layers on the treasures under their charge.

ib. p. 3.

3. Some years after Ceadwalla, King of Wessex, slew Aethelwalch and conquered Wight, which, we are told, was down to that time "entirely given over to heathenism," though the West Saxons had been converted to Christianity forty years before.

Oman, *Conquest* p. 226

In the first sentence the reader cannot know whether to take the first word to mean [kən'vəs], interpreted as an imperative stem, or as ['kən,vəs], the noun, until he reaches *leads*. Many a reader, consequently, will come to an abrupt stand-still on finding that in looking upon the first word as a verb he has made a mistake. In the second sentence circumstances are perhaps more favourable to a correct first interpretation, but I hope no one will say that a reader who supposes that *claim* is a noun, until he reads on, is necessarily stupid. The third sentence shows the possible inconvenience of a single form (*atter*) for the adverbial and conjunctional functions. It is important

to note that there would be no difficulty in *spoken* English: in the first sentence the single spelling for two formally distinct words causes the ambiguity; in the second the stressing of *some* would remove all possibility of misunderstanding; in the third there is a break between the breath-group *some years after* and *Ceadwalla*.

The distinction of nouns and adjectives is acceptable only when we recognise transitional cases; for the use of attributive nouns, which have been shown never to express number by their form, and the occasional use of class-nouns without an article as predicative adjuncts, creates a 'difficulty' for anyone who desires a strict classification. It has also been shown that there is no rigid line to be drawn separating adjectives and adverbs, still less between adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. And it has been shown, too, that nouns may serve as conjunctions, whether with a formal indication of this function (e.g. by the absence of an article, as in *while*) or not (*by the time*). It must also be remembered that all anaphoric pronouns and adverbs tend to be connective, and thus to approach the character of conjunctions. The verb, both in its stem form and with a suffix -*ing* or -*ed*, may serve as a conjunction, and make a classification impossible.

1580. The conclusion to which the foregoing considerations lead us is that the classification of words into parts of speech is a very rough one, and must be such. It explains the ease with which words in English pass from one class into another, and makes the symptom of what is called *Conversion* intelligible. It also explains why conversion is more frequent in English than in many languages that are genealogically related but have retained more of the original inflectional system.

We may add, finally, that in the two volumes dealing with the parts of speech the existence of words as independent elements of language is taken for granted. It will be shown in the third volume that words, even if they may be supposed to be more than the abstractions of linguists, depend largely on the analysis of the sentences in which they occur. That this analysis is by no means a matter of course in many cases, but, on the contrary, presents difficulties that will never be solved to the satisfaction of those who expect a classification of a mathematical character, will be only too apparent. This want of mathematical 'clearness' is inextricably bound up with language as a means of human communication: language is the more effective as such because it is inconsistent.

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